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HOW SHALL THE CANAL ZONE BE GOVERNED?

One thing, at least, the United States has learned in the construction of the Panama Canal. It may be summed up by that familiar and homely adage which deals with the relations existing between the quantity of the cooks and the quality of the broth.

In 1904 President Roosevelt, in accordance with the provisions of the Spooner Act, appointed a Canal Commission of seven men. It is no criticism upon either the honesty or the ability of the individual members of that Commission to say that as an executive body it was a failure. The second Commission, nominated in 1905, while still composed of seven members, was so organized by Executive decree as to place the control of affairs in the hands of three men: a civil Governor and a chief engineer who resided on the Isthmus, and a chairman who resided with the rest of the Commission in the United States.

In March, 1907, upon the resignation of the chairman, Mr. Shonts, the offices of chairman and chief engineer were consolidated in one and given to Mr. Stevens, for whose work in solving the all-important problem of the disposal of the "spoil" from Culebra Cut too much credit can hardly be given.

When Mr. Stevens resigned, as he did one month later, a third Commission was appointed, so constituted as to place the ultimate responsibility for the undertaking in the hands of one man. How Colonel Goethals has acquitted himself is now almost a matter of history. The story of the Canal has been a story of gradual concentration of responsibility, and without just this process its completion might have been indefinitely delayed.

Now that the consummation of the undertaking is so close at hand, the question of the permanent organization of the Zone is coming insistently to the front. At least three factors must be given consideration in every solution which is proposed:

The Canal Zone is really a colonial possession for which some form of civil government must be provided.

It is a military post of vital importance which must, in time of war, be under absolute control of the army.

It is a vast business enterprise that must be given the best system of management which we as a Nation are capable of creating.

Two plans have already been brought forward, the first calling for a centralized government organized on military lines, the second calling for a commission of three men, each with an equal share in the government of the Zone. The former plan has been put forward by Colonel Goethals, the second by Commissioner Metcalfe. Mr. Metcalfe has enjoyed an extensive acquaintance with conditions on the Isthmus, beginning with August of the present year! Previous to that time he was engaged as an editor of Mr. Bryan's newspaper, the "Commoner." Doubtless the contrast between his former and his present employment enabled him to approach this important problem with a sense of perspective and a freshness of understanding which chance has denied to the actual builder of the Canal.

Secretary Garrison is now on his way to the Isthmus to study this question "upon its native heath." We are rather inclined to suspect, with Secretary Garrison, that the opinion of Colonel Goethals will outweigh the views of Mr. Metcalfe, unspoiled though these be by either training or experience.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE MERIT SYSTEM

Friends of Civil Service Reform were dismayed last week at the announcement that the President had signed the Urgency Deficiency Bill with its vicious "rider." The President has thus twice yielded to riders on appropria-

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tion bills in order to appease the spoilsmen among his followers; incidentally, he needs all the votes possible for the pending Administration financial bill.

Some time ago the President signed the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill with its rider to the effect that certain funds allotted to the Department of Justice should not be used to prosecute farmers or union laborers accused of violating the Sherman Anti-Trust Law. This bill, with its rider, had been previously vetoed by President Taft. Like many another matter, the rider could not have passed Congress had it been presented as a separate bill.

The same thing is true of the rider attached to the Urgency Deficiency Bill which President Wilson has now signed. The rider repeals all of the provisions of the Civil Service Act of 1883, and of all subsequent acts in so far as they may relate to the appointment or removal of deputy collectors of internal revenue and of deputy marshals who are required to give bond for the faithful performance of their duty while in office.

It has been said that these officers were never intended to be put under civil service rules. If so, we think the discovery a bit belated. The public, so far as we know, has not been aware of dissatisfaction with the law on the part of merit system supporters, like President Wilson. To think that Mr. Wilson should set a mischievous precedent for tampering with that law! Of course he thinks that his well-known position as to civil service is a safe guarantee for the immediate future, and asserts, in explanation of his signature, "My warm advocacy and support both of the principle and of the bona-fide practice of Civil Service Reform is known to the whole country, and there is no danger that the spoils principle will creep in with my approval or connivance." Perhaps not, so long as Mr. Wilson is President. But what offset is this personal guarantee for the amendment of the law itself? One can fancy what might happen under a possible future spoilsman President.

Fortunately, the President has the power of his own motion to replace the persons affected by the rider under the protection of the merit system. He will surely do so, because we are convinced that he will wish to restore popular confidence in him as a reformer in deed as well as in word. But even his doing so will not give permanent assurance to those who believe in the merit system.

POLITICAL CHAOS IN MEXICO

As the date set for the elections in Mexico approached last week the political state of the country became more and more confused and all but unintelligible. Huerta's power has rested solely on physical force since the day he made himself dictator. Rumors increased that he would be a candidate for the Presidency, with General Blanquet as candidate for the Vice-Presidency, and this in spite of the fact that in the correspondence growing out of Mr. John Lind's visit to Mexico it was admitted on Huerta's behalf that a Provisional President taken from the Ministry could not constitutionally be a candidate. Predictions were even made that Huerta would resign on Saturday and have himself elected on Sunday! On the other hand, Huerta is reported to have told the foreign representatives that he is not a candidate.

The position of Felix Diaz as a candidate has been equally singular. He arrived at Vera Cruz from Havana last week on a German passenger ship guarded by a German gunboat, disregarded orders from Huerta to leave the country, and maintained his right to be a candidate for the Presidency. The paradox of Felix Diaz's situation is that as a general he is supposed to obey Huerta's orders, while he cannot legally be a candidate unless he is in Mexico at the time of the election. He took refuge in the American Consulate, and there became practically a prisoner.

The other candidates who have been named appear to be making no campaign, and if there is any presentation to the voters of party issues or the purposes of candidates no reports have come to the United States. Before these words are read it is more than probable that a new crisis may exist in Mexican affairs. Any election now held would be merely farcical. New arrests of opponents of Huerta among his own personal staff are reported, with the accusation that they are conspiring with Diaz, while Diaz himself is practically under guard. In the military field of operation the most important news of the week was that insurgent forces have made a severe attack upon the important town of Monterey. Huerta's order to detain at Vera Cruz a steamship under the American flag, because of an old charge against the captain

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of aiding a Maderisto to escape, was abandoned when indignation in the United States flamed up and our Government protested

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INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS OF THE MEXICAN SITUATION

Stories were current all last week of interchanges as to Mexico between our State Department and the British Foreign Office. No authorized statement was made, but Ambassador Page has been in conference with Sir Edward Grey and others high in British foreign policy. The general belief is that the Washington Administration has desired to induce Great Britain to approve President Wilson's refusal in advance to recognize any Government growing out of the proposed election in Mexico. If such an effort has been made, it has failed. The British position seems to be to stand firmly on its early recognition of the Huerta Government, to assume no responsibility for internal affairs in Mexico, however bad they may be, but to protect wherever necessary British citizens and their financial interests. It does not sympathize with the present American policy, which has stopped the ordinary channels of international dealing with Mexico, has advised our own citizens to leave the country, and yet undertakes to tell the only semblance of government existing in Mexico what it should do and what it should not do. The feeling seems to be growing in all the important European countries that it is inconsistent for the United States at the same time to maintain that it has unique responsibility in Mexican affairs and yet to ask the large countries of Europe to bring moral and international pressure to bear upon Mexico. War-ships have been sent by France, Germany, and Great Britain to Mexican ports.

The uncertain and unsatisfactory international situation as regards Mexico lends point to the recent utterance by Henry Lane Wilson, our former Ambassador to Mexico, in which he scores Mr. Bryan's conduct as to himself. In particular Mr. Wilson declares that Mr. Bryan, "with tempestuous haste and apparently prompted by partisan zeal," caused our Ambassador in London to apologize for language uttered by Ambassador Wilson which was "not in the least bit offensive," and which caused "the greatest possible surprise to the Government of Great Britain, which did not know it had been offended," and thus exposed to the British Foreign Office "the spirit of hazardous adventure which presides over the Department of State." Alleged criticism by the British Ambassador to Mexico, Sir Lionel Carden, to the effect that our State Department does not understand the Mexican situation, has not lessened reports and fears as to the unsatisfactory diplomatic aspect of the matter.

Altogether, the international policy of our Government, so far as may be judged from press reports, seems to be almost as difficult to understand as the political conditions in Mexico itself.

THE AFTERMATH OF THE SULZER IMPEACHMENT

In its political destruction of Governor Sulzer, Tammany has evoked its own condemnation. Even if all that was claimed as to Sulzer's recklessness, irresponsibility, and illegality be granted, the people of New York have clearly seen that the attack on Sulzer grew out of the Tammany purpose to force partisan and bad appointments by holding over the Governor's head threats to be enforced by opposition or attack in the Legislature. Governor Sulzer's own statement to the public, following his deposition, gave dates and places and names of agents involved in the attempt to make Sulzer a political slave.

These assertions were followed by still more detailed allegations by John A. Hennessy, who, as Governor Sulzer's appointee to be Highways Commissioner, started the fraud investigations which offended Murphy, the Tammany boss. Mr. Hennessy asserted that Judge McCall, the Tammany candidate for Mayor, was a go-between in Murphy's attempt to cajole or coerce Sulzer, and boldly accused McCall of contributing to the Tammany campaign fund with money obtained by a police official for him. This evidently actionable assertion included the inference that McCall more or less directly paid for his judgeship. Thus Mr. Hennessy is reported in the newspapers as saying: "Let Judge McCall answer, Where did he get the money which he paid over to Murphy and Plunkett for the nomination for Supreme Court Justice?" It is stated that Judge McCall will proceed criminally against Mr. Hennessy. Judge McCall certainly owes it to hmself to put the charge made to the test.

All last week in New York City the lie was

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passed back and forth among those involved in the exposure or defense of Tammany. Meanwhile Mr. Sulzer conducted a whirlwind campaign as a Progressive candidate for election to the Assembly from the Sixth District. Enormous crowds cheered his fierce invectives against McCall as "Murphy's rubber stamp candidate," and his defiance of Murphy to take the fight into the courts. Strangely enough, in this fierce fight for a local election has appeared, far more than anywhere else in the New York City campaign, the kind of enmity to Tammany rule and Tammany methods which indicates an awakening among the common people in detestation of graft and against corrupt rule. In this action the people of this East Side district have seized upon Mr. Sulzer as a symbol of their protest and their aspiration for freedom.

MRS. PANKHURST ADMITTED

As has happened on several occasions, the immigration officials at the port of New York have again been overruled by the authorities at Washington. In each instance the port officials have decided the case before them in accordance with the strict letter of the law. Washington seems to have taken into consideration the purpose for which our immigration law was framed.

The latest example of this conflict of opinion occurred over the question of the admission of Mrs. Emmeline Pankhurst, the English militant suffragist. The law denies admission to this country to all persons who have been convicted of acts involving moral turpitude. Mrs. Pankhurst, as she of course admitted, is at present out of prison on what in other days might have been described as ticket of leave, but which is at present better known as "release under the cat and mouse bill," that law by which the present English Government has sought to prevent suffragettes imprisoned from committing suicide by starvation. She has all but three months of a three years' sentence for "conspiracy" still to serve.

The question whether her offense against society was one involving moral turpitude is less difficult to decide than might at first be supposed. In law, an act involving turpitude is not necessarily one inherently base or vile. The legal definition of the word turpitude is broad enough to cover even offenses against "modesty" or "order." Certainly the inciting of women to arson, whatever the motive, can be included under this head. In overruling the local immigration officials the President evidently took into consideration the fact that Mrs. Pankhurst has no intention of becoming a citizen of this country, and that there is not the slightest likelihood of her becoming a "public charge" in any sense of the term. He therefore ordered her released on her own recognizance, with the understanding that she leave the country when her lecture engagements have been fulfilled. Contrary to expectations, her first audience (at Madison Square Garden, New York) was of only moderate size.

It is against the permanent settlement of undesirables that the intent of the immigration law is directed. It was not drawn for the purpose of excluding transient and misguided zealots of the type of Mrs. Pankhurst. The "John Browns" of history can be more easily and more accurately classified by physicians than by criminologists.

AN ENGLISH VICTORY

A better argument for woman suffrage than the burning of buildings or the smashing of windows is presented to English consideration in the victory of Miss Ravencroft in the final round of the women's golf championship in the United States. What Ray and Vardon failed to do in behalf of masculine England Miss Ravencroft has accomplished in the name of her gentler, if sometimes militant, compatriots. If the connection between her victory at golf and the granting of the suffrage may seem remote, it is certainly no less pertinent to the issue than many arguments which have been advanced on both sides of this question.

Miss Ravencroft with three other Englishwomen comprised the invading force. Two of these, Miss Ravencroft and Miss Dodd, the present holder of the British and Canadian championship, survived until the semi-final round, when Miss Ravencroft defeated her ally—"and then there was one." In the finals Miss Ravencroft was paired with Marion Hollins, of West Brook, who, like Ouimet, is a player who has only recently come into National prominence. The deciding match was closer than perhaps most American followers of the game expected or hoped, Miss Ravencroft defeating Miss Hollins by the small but comfortable margin of two up. The championship tournament was played

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on the grounds of the Wilmington Country Club, Wilmington, Delaware.

A SPORTING TRANSLATION OF A SPORTSMAN'S ADVICE

Dr. John Duncan Spaeth, Professor of English at Princeton and coach of the University crew, must have been somewhat surprised at the interpretation placed upon his recent remarks by a reporter, or perhaps a "headliner," of the New York "Tribune." Dr. Spaeth, as readers of The Outlook will remember, has in his work at Princeton made a notable contribution to the athletic traditions of American colleges. Without sacrificing efficiency of instruction, he has worked to inculcate in his charges the best phases of the amateur spirit. In accordance with this purpose he gave the following advice to the students of Princeton as a prelude to an approaching race on Lake Carnegie: "Do not bet on the Princeton crew in the race with Yale," he said; "but if you are good Princeton men, back up the crew in other ways." When this admirable, yet moderately comprehensible, sentiment appeared in the "Tribune," it was sheltered under the following illuminating caption:

PRINCETON NOT HOPEFUL OF BEATING YALE CREW

Don't Bet on Eight Next Saturday is Advice of Coach

By what process of logic the "Tribune" reporter reached his conclusions as to the reasons which prompted Dr. Spaeth's advice it would be hard to say. Perhaps by syllogistic inference he decided: "All men bet when they hope to win. Dr. Spaeth does not bet; therefore he does not hope to win." Or perhaps by analogical inference he concluded: "Dr. Spaeth does not hope to win. If I did not expect my crew to win, even at the expense of being called a 'piker' by my friends, I should not bet. Therefore, fear of defeat is the only possible reason within the bounds of human understanding why Dr. Spaeth should advise his students to refrain from betting."

We do not pretend to have given more than a rough outline of the mental process by which the heading in question might have been evolved. It is quite possible that we may be entirely mistaken. There may have been no mental process at all. In a mind possessing a purely empirical knowledge of the (vanishing) code of sporting ethics, the headline in question may have resulted from mere galvanic reaction.

A YEAR'S HOLIDAY

Mr. Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty in the Liberal Ministry of Great Britain, who has his father's genius for making dramatic suggestions in a dramatic way, has proposed that England and Germany take a naval holiday for one year by an agreement on the part of England to put off building four battle-ships, providing Germany will agree to put off building two battle-ships for the same period. Such an agreement would secure a complete holiday for one year so far as the construction of great ships is concerned, and would save the expenditure of nearly thirty millions by Germany and nearly sixty millions by Great Britain, and the relative strength of the two countries in the end would be absolutely unchanged.

Mr. Churchill's invitation, which must seem to Americans to embody the dictates of common sense and to be free from all possible objections, has not been officially met by Germany. The maker of the suggestion declared that he expected it would arouse a great deal of ridicule; but it is not easy to see at what point ridicule can attack it. It changes nothing so far as the relative strength of the two countries is concerned, and saves ninety million dollars. It is, in other words, a measure of economy without any sacrifice to either people of pride or of safety. Mr. Churchill spoke of the objections that would be raised by manufacturers of armaments and munitions of war, and added, "They must be our servants and not our masters." It would be interesting if some one would make a thorough and trustworthy study of the great business interests involved in keeping up irritation and misunderstanding between different countries. Precisely as women in this age of enfranchisement are the servants of tailors, dressmakers, and the manufacturers of many kinds of fabrics, so great nations are the tools of an enormous capital invested in the continuance of present methods of warfare. The rivalry in armaments has ceased to be comic because the burden it imposes is fast becoming intolerable. Another member of the Liberal Cabinet, Mr. Samuel, the Postmaster-General, commenting in New York last week on English competition with Germany in building warships, said: "If present conditions go on, we

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shall be spending all our wealth to protect our wealth, like the child who was given sixpence and spent sixpence to buy a purse to put it in."

THE "RITUAL MURDER" CASE IN KIEV

Reference was made last week to the trial now going on in Kiev, Russia, of the Jew Mendel Beilis, who was arrested in August, 1911, upon the charge of murdering a Russian child for the purpose of getting Christian blood to use in the ritual services of the Jewish Passover.

A statement of additional facts follows. In due time Mr. George Kennan will contribute to The Outlook a special article dealing with this extraordinary development of fanaticism and race hatred.

On the 25th of March, 1911, a thirteen-year-old boy named Andrew Yushchinski, living in Kiev, disappeared mysteriously while on his way to school. Nine days later his disfigured body was found in a cave in the suburbs of Kiev, together with his school-books and everything that he had with him when he started from home. The body, when found, was partly undressed, was almost bloodless, and had been stabbed or pierced in more than forty places with some sharp-pointed instrument like a poniard or heavy awl. There were no traces of blood in the vicinity, and the boy had evidently been killed elsewhere and brought to the cave some hours after life was extinct. No attempt had been made to prevent identification of the corpse; on the contrary, the boy's school-books had been placed beside him, and a belt bearing his name had been laid across his legs. The nature and great number of the wounds, together with the bloodless condition of the body, suggested a crime of an unusual nature, and the Jew-haters of the Black Hundreds at once raised the cry of "ritual murder," and declared in proclamations in the anti-Semitic press, and even in the Duma, that the Jews had killed the child, as they had previously killed many other Russian children, in order to get Christian blood to be used in their diabolical ceremonies. This "blood accusation," as it was called in Russia, led to a bitter and passionate controversy, which was carried on for two years or more by the Society of the Double-Headed Eagle, the Archangel Michael Society, the Union of Real Russians, the Reactionists, Monarchists, and Black Hundreds on one side, and the Jews, the Liberal press, the opposition parties in the Duma, and the enlightened people of the Empire generally, on the other.

This controversy soon attracted the attention of the whole civilized world; and protests against the "blood accusation," as a revival of a mediæval myth, were made not only by eight hundred Jewish rabbis and perhaps a thousand representative citizens and leaders of thought in Russia, but by the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Liverpool, London, Glasgow, and Dublin; by the International Congress of Orientalists and the International Medical Congress; by associations of psychologists and psychiatrists; and by many thousands of the world's most distinguished scholars and statesmen in Germany, France, England, and the United States.

The Russian Government, meanwhile, arrested the Jew Mendel Beilis—an ex-soldier and a worker in a Kiev brick factory—threw him into prison, and devoted two whole years to a search for evidence that would at the same time incriminate him and convict the Jews of using Christian blood in the making of unleavened bread for their Passover. But for the personal initiative and insistence of the Czar, the prosecution would have abandoned the "ritual murder" theory and set Mendel Beilis at liberty two years ago; but the monarch, the Court, and the Ministry of Justice were determined to make out a case against the Jews. That case is now being tried, in the Kiev Chamber of Justice, before a bench of four judges and a duly impaneled jury. But it is not really the case of The State vs. Mendel Beilis; it is the case of Nicholas II vs. the Jewish race and the Jewish religion.

SIR RUFUS ISAACS

Sir Rufus Isaacs, British Attorney-General, has been appointed Lord Chief Justice in succession to Viscount Alverstone. One reads of this appointment with something of a shock. Lord Alverstone's eminence at the bar has been international in its reputation. It was notably accentuated some years ago in London at the meeting of the Joint High Commission, consisting of three members each from Great Britain and the United States, to decide the Alaskan boundary question, when Lord Alverstone accepted the justice of our contention. Sir Rufus Isaacs is of course well known in England, but has not yet made an international reputation.

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He came near doing so, however, recently, in an unfortunate way, and this is what causes the surprise with which foreigners will hear of his promotion.

Though a member of the Cabinet, Sir Rufus had invested in shares of the Marconi Company, the relations of which to the Government were intimate. While Sir Rufus's intentions were doubtless blameless, the fact that he could put his money into a concern so situated would hardly indicate the finest ethical delicacy. If this clouded his reputation as a Cabinet Minister, it would surely cloud his reputation as a Judge. And yet he is elevated to a lofty judicial position. We look to England for leadership in all that pertains to the judiciary; and yet we cannot help thinking that in this respect America may be compared with England without any discredit. Certain it is that if an Attorney-General in the Cabinet of one of our Presidents had been found to be in Sir Rufus's predicament, he would not have received promotion to the bench.

This appointment, however, has another and very impressive significance. Sir Rufus Isaacs is a Jew. He is the first Jew to be Lord Chief Justice. The action recalls the history of Jewish emancipation in England. It is hardly half a century since disabilities were finally all removed from Jews there and full parliamentary rights bestowed upon them. The late Lord Rothschild was elected to the House of Commons in 1847, it is true, but he could not take a seat there. Not until 1886 did the first Jewish peer sit in the House of Lords.

Finally, the appointment is interesting on the personal side. Sir Rufus has frequently been mentioned by his countrymen as showing that speedy transitions from one estate to another can take place elsewhere than in the United States. Sir Rufus is the son of a London merchant. He studied at various schools, and then took up a life at sea, becoming a common sailor. Tiring of this, he opened an office as a broker, but made a failure. At this moment he met the girl who afterwards became his wife. She persuaded him to study law. He did so, and was admitted to the bar. His most signal success was won in the Whitaker-Wright case, followed by the swindler's confession and suicide.

Only a decade ago the then Mr. Isaacs entered Parliament. Four years ago he was made Solicitor-General, and a year later Attorney-General. Altogether, Sir Rufus is an extremely interesting character, and may make a brilliant Lord Chief Justice.

THE PRINCETON GRADUATE COLLEGE

A cloudless day last week favored the dedication of the new Graduate College at Princeton, and lent impressiveness to the noble Gothic architecture of the buildings. They inclose an ample quadrangle. At one corner is Procter Hall, a lofty dining-room, reminding one of those at Oxford and Cambridge. At another corner is the massive and imposing Cleveland Tower, also with its suggestion of English towers.

The establishment of this Graduate College is an event of moment to the educational world, as was shown by the fact that at the dedication representatives of over a hundred and twenty American and European colleges and universities were present. The European representatives were Alois Riehl, the German philosopher and late Rector of the University of Berlin; Émile Boutroux, the French philosopher and professor in the University of Paris; Arthur Shipley, the zoölogist and Master of Christ's College, Cambridge; and Arthur Denis Godley, of Magdalen College, Oxford, the "Public Orator" in the University of Oxford.

The addresses of these men were listened to with marked attention; indeed, the attention of the audience seemed to be quite as acute in listening to Dr. Riehl's German and M. Boutroux's French as to the English of the others. These four men were chosen not only because of their individual distinction, but largely because they are champions of the residential idea for advanced as well as for younger students—namely, to give to them dignified house and table facilities and scholarly companionship. Professor Riehl recalled Fichte's plea for the unification of university instruction through organization of the academic life and the institution of an academic association which in its main features is akin to the project of the Princeton Graduate College. Fichte's proposal is at last to be realized by the establishment of a residential college in the University of Berlin. In the same spirit, Professor Boutroux, the Director of the Fondation Thiers and a leader in the École Normale, referred to those residential institutions which have done more than anything else to create French

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scholarship. Of course the Englishmen were representatives of century-old residential ideals in Oxford and Cambridge, where scholars live in close association with their university.

THE CLEVELAND TOWER

This ideal of close association is to be realized at Princeton. The only cause for regret is that the fine influence of this group of graduate students will not be exerted in closer contact with undergraduate life. The University is to be congratulated that the housing of its graduate pupils has been successfully and remarkably achieved by Mr. Ralph Adams Cram, an architect who has already done much to give to American architecture a commanding place in the present-day efforts in that art. This is impressively true of Mr. Cram's success in the Cleveland Memorial Tower, a memorial to one of our ablest Presidents, and Princeton's most prominent architectural feature. Its soaring mass should be continually a reminder of the robustness of the man it commemorates. As ex-President Taft said in his address on his predecessor in the Presidency, "His career is a lesson most helpful in this day and generation. . . . The good that he did in office and the high ideals of which he was an exponent are shining examples to those who live after him."

The establishment of the Princeton Graduate School adds another honor to a university which has played an important part in the history of our country from very early times to the present, for, as Mr. Taft pointed out, "one of her Presidents, a publicist and statesman of world-wide reputation, presides to-day in the White House." The new institution crowns with success the long effort of Dean Andrew F. West, who has energetically labored to establish this new household of learning.

The whole academic world will now watch with interest to see the ensuing practical result in scholarship.

THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM

As was expected, the trustees of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City, have accepted the Altman gift, complying with all the requests of the donor. Mr. Altman gave his paintings, porcelains, tapestries, rugs, enamels, rock crystals, marbles, bronzes, and furniture to the Museum on condition that it should provide and permanently maintain in a fireproof building rooms to contain these collections and none other; that the rooms should insure adequate space and light, and should be approved by the executors of his will. Indeed, Mr. Altman wrote in that will that he should prefer to have the exhibition of his collection either "in a separate building or at the end of one of the important wings of the Museum," but that he hesitated "to prescribe in greater detail the particular situation or requirements," relying on the high character of the Museum trustees.

At this same meeting the trustees elected a new President in succession to the late J. Pierpont Morgan. Mr. Joseph H. Choate is the only survivor of the founders of the Museum, but, as he felt that he could not undertake the active duties of the presidency, the office of Honorary President was created for him, and Mr. Robert W. de Forest, the Vice-President of the Museum, was chosen President. Mr. de Forest has long served the Museum as Secretary and as Vice-President, and is as well aware as any one both of its needs and of its possibilities. Effective and energetic administration should be expected from Mr. de Forest. He enters upon office at a time when the Museum has received more important additions than have ever come to any gallery in the world—the vast Morgan collections now intrusted to its keeping and Mr. Altman's outright gift.

THE PROBLEMS OF DELINQUENCY

To those who for some years have attended the annual meetings of the American Prison Association, which gathers the penologists from all parts of the United States, the progress in so-called "prison reform," measured by decades, is striking and most encouraging.

This year at Indianapolis, from October 11 to 16, there came to the front as noteworthy subjects of discussion and as what the Germans might call the *Leitmotiv*, especially the questions of the outdoor employment of prisoners on honor, the scientific clinical study of the individual delinquent, and the developing international relations in prison reform. The lobby of the Hotel Claypool, the headquarters of the Conference, was decorated with the flags of Cuba, Canada, and Germany, as well as

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with the Stars and Stripes. Representatives from our neighbors to the north and southeast were present, and one of the most spontaneous and striking features of recent years occurred when the several hundred American delegates rose to their feet in formal but hearty greeting of four distinguished representatives of the Prussian Government, Messrs. Plaschke, Schlosser, Hiekmann, and Remppis, who are making a two months' official study of American correctional methods.

Noteworthy also was a historical progressive exhibit of prison reform in the State of Indiana, and the presence on the programme of several Governors, among them Governors Ralston of Indiana, Foss of Massachusetts, and Eberhart of Minnesota, in which latter State, at St. Paul, next year's Conference will be held.

MILESTONES OF PROGRESS

The newer treatment of prisoners by outdoor employment, the development of trustworthiness, the farm colony, and a more individualized classification, were permeating themes at the Association's meeting. From all sections of this country came reports of success, often amazing, in the testing of the honor of prisoners.

The more radical penologists hailed the most striking experiments as proofs of a new era in the treatment of the prisoner; the more conservative wardens and members of boards of managers tended to advise haste with caution. In the newest developments, as at Guelph in Ontario and at Great Meadow in New York, the State prisons, be they for long-term or short-term offenders, are playing a leading part, while from a number of reformatories, such as Elmira in New York, Jeffersonville in Indiana, Rahway in New Jersey, and Sherborne in Massachusetts, came a strong current of scientific research, which eventuated in the formation of a new affiliated society, christened the American Association of Clinical Criminology. The importance of this society, under the initial presidency of Dr. Frank Christian, Assistant Superintendent of Elmira Reformatory, cannot be too strongly emphasized. The organization's fundamental aim will be to develop an American criminology characterized by accuracy, thoroughness, and comprehensiveness, gathering within its group of members those who contribute distinctly valuable clinical studies of delinquents in this country.

Striking also at the Conference of the American Prison Association was the infusion of "young blood," the absence of not a few wardens and superintendents whose faces had been known for many years, and, according to one of the older members, the particularly frank discussion of methods and principles in the formal and informal meetings of the wardens. The Conference was felt to have reached high-water mark in many respects.

WILLIAM GARROTT BROWN

In his very interesting study of "The Lower South in American History," William Garrott Brown, commenting on the difficulty of reconstructing and revivifying a vanished social order, recognizes the magnitude of the task, and says: "For my true task, like many another task of many another man, must wait for better days; for days of confident mornings and calm evenings." Unfortunately for American literature, those mornings and evenings did not come to Mr. Brown, whose death in his early prime has cut off a fruitful and promising career. Born in Alabama, educated at a local college and at Harvard, an assistant in the Harvard Library, and afterwards lecturer on American history in the same institution, actively interested in politics as a Sound Money Democrat, and the author of a group of interesting books, Mr. Brown was exceptionally well qualified to make contributions of lasting value to American history. His "The Lower South" is an illuminating presentation of the effect of the transfer of the center of political authority from Virginia to the newer States, involving, as it did, a radical change in the attitude of the Southern people towards slavery. And there has been perhaps no better philosophical interpretation of the genius of the Democratic and Republican parties than that which Mr. Brown has given in one of his essays. Interpreting the Democratic party in the light of its history to the time in which he wrote, it, he says, is the exponent of philosophic ideas; the Republican party, an organizing and effective political instrument. The Democratic party is "the party of the air;" the Republican party, "the party of the earth."

Mr. Brown was a fine exponent of the culture and ideas of the New South; not the New South of industrialism, which defines

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itself most clearly in Atlanta and Birmingham; but the New South which reveals itself in the enthusiasm for education, in reverence for the idealism of the older social order modified by the demands of modern conditions and transformed into a popular force. Men of his temper and training are not too common in this country; and his death in his early maturity is a distinct loss to American literature.

MOTHERHOOD AND TEACHING

The Board of Education of New York City has dismissed from her position as teacher in the public schools a married woman on the ground that she has neglected her duty as teacher in becoming a mother. Possibly the circumstances of the case, which have not come out in the report of it, were such as to justify the Board in feeling that this woman who had been eighteen years in the service of the school could be trusted in that service no longer. The indications are, however, that the Board in this decision is taking the general position that motherhood disqualifies a woman from being a teacher.

It seems to us self-evident that no position approaches in honor, in dignity, in breadth of scope, in challenge to all the highest faculties, the position of mother of a family. The fact that modern conditions of life and labor are calling women into permanent occupations outside the sphere of the home is one not to be hailed with joy, but with some concern for the future of the race. There are two conceivable ways by which this depletion of the home might be corrected. One is by making more difficult of access the avenues that lead away from the home. The other is by surrounding the home with greater safeguards and investing it with wider opportunities for development, and giving to maternity, with all that is involved in it, a larger measure of protection. On neither of these grounds can the action of the Board of Education of New York City be defended.

But it may be said that the duty of the Board of Education is not to direct or modify social forces; it is to see that the schools are conducted with efficiency. True. The question then arises, Does motherhood disqualify a woman from becoming an efficient teacher? We see no ground whatever for believing that it does. On the contrary, there is no calling that is nominally outside of the home which is in fact so intimately connected with the home as the calling of the teacher. Indeed, one of the essential duties of the mother is to teach. Other things being equal, the woman who is a mother is presumably better fitted to teach than one who is not.

Every such case as this ought to be considered on its own merits. It is possible that under some circumstances a woman by becoming a mother may thereby become incapacitated to act as teacher. Certainly she becomes temporarily so incapacitated in every such case. The question remains in each case whether such temporary incapacity is likely to last so long that the retention of the mother on the list of teachers would be injurious to the school. Motherhood in ordinary cases will necessitate a leave of absence. We think that there is fair question whether motherhood does not so increase the teacher's capacity for teaching that the leave of absence should be granted with pay. The view that motherhood in and of itself is sufficient ground for dismissal of a teacher is contrary to reason and to sound public policy.

This is not the first time that the present Board of Education in New York City has shown symptoms of narrowness. Mayor Kline has a great opportunity before him between now and the first of next January, when he will retire. It will be his duty to fill several places in that Board. Nothing that he has in hand will call for more careful consideration on his part than these appointments.

THE NEW ATHENS

A despatch to the New York "Times" announces that the Greek Government proposes to make a new Athens. The most important feature will be the development of Phalerum, three and a half miles away from the central city, as the capital's second port, Piræus being the first. The latter port is becoming too small for the rapidly developing commerce and marine of Greece. Phalerum, it will be recalled, was long ago the port of ancient Athens, but Themistocles persuaded the citizens of the superior advantages of Piræus.

Among several public works to be undertaken will be a cathedral as a memorial to the Greeks who fell in the Balkan wars. Certain old temples are to be restored. But what is of greater immediate importance is the proposition with regard to the city's sanitation. It is estimated that no less than seventy per cent of the entire inhabitants of Greece

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periodically suffer from malaria, with a two per cent mortality. In so far as the region about Athens is concerned, the Greek Government is about starting a war in all the lowlands, employing measures similar to those which have been successfully used by the Italian Government in getting rid of the pest in the Campagna about Rome.

THE GERMAN BIRTH RATE

For some time there has been concern in Germany about the Empire's declining birth rate. This concern has recently been increased by the prediction of Professor Wolff, an eminent economist, that by 1920 Germany would fall below France in the rate of increase in population. Will the most prolific among civilized peoples have reached a standstill in numbers before six years have passed?

According to the Minister of War's recent statement, corroborated by the Minister of the Interior, Germans seem to be following the French, English, and Americans in the decline of the number of marriages, the increase in the number of divorces, and the decrease in the birth rate. In 1875 the birth rate in Germany was 39¼ for every thousand inhabitants, while in 1912 it had fallen to 29. This decrease was comparatively negligible up to the beginning of the present century. From 1876 to 1900 the decline in the rate was 3¼ a thousand, while from 1900 to 1912 it was 7, more than double.

The cause of the decline in the German birth rate is attributed, first of all, to the growth of city life. In the country districts the large German family is still the rule. Especially is this true of all Roman Catholic families. In the Kingdom of Bavaria, where the Church is very strong in numbers, the birth rate shows no falling off. The Bavarian Catholics not unnaturally boast that they are saving family life for the whole Empire.

The lowering of the birth rate does not indicate the lowering of Teutonic physical stamina or the deterioration of morals. This is proved by the physical examination for army service, which shows that the men are as sound and good as they were a generation ago.

The decline in the growth of population has naturally raised some speculation as to the ambition and power of Germany to become a great colonizing nation. "If we are going to stop growing," the Germans say, "we shall have no need for new lands, as we will have to keep our people at home to hold our own lands."

What saves Germans from gloom is the low death rate. In 1875 it was 26 for every thousand inhabitants; by 1900 it had been reduced to 20½; while in 1912 it was only 16½. But for these death-rate figures, the Minister of War declares, "there would have been an actual reduction in the population." The low death rate is due to improved hygienic conditions. But even these conditions, adds the Minister, cannot save the nation from the steadily falling birth rate—indeed, the Government may be compelled later to lengthen the term of service in the army from two years, as now, to three years, as in France, according to the new French law. Another year of military service adds a great burden to any nation.

ECONOMY!

In seeking the votes of the electors of New York City, Mr. McCall, the Tammany candidate, has raised the issue of economy.

When a Tammany candidate says "economy," what have the people of New York a right to understand by that term? They do not have to search far. Mr. McCall has himself offered an example. He has denounced as extravagant the city's purchase of two great parks, Dreamland Park and Rockaway Park. He is reputed to have said that "these properties bring in no revenue to the city, they are a burden upon the taxpayers." He has denied that he proposed selling them, but he has declared that he would not have voted to purchase them.

What are these parks?

The great mass of the people who live in such a city as New York must stay there week in and week out. They must live under conditions of crowding that make light and air and space to move about in precious. The lives of the people of New York are just as dependent upon light and air and space as the lives of other people. But to secure sufficient light and air and space in such a city as New York, no individual, unless he be well-to-do, can depend upon himself. To secure these essentials to health and to life itself the individual must depend upon all his fellow-citizens—that is, upon the city.

It has been shown by statistics that the children of a family that lives in one room are on the average smaller in stature, slighter in

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physique, than those of a family that lives in two rooms ; and that the " three-room child " has a distinct advantage over the " two-room child." It is also demonstrable that tuberculosis and the diseases of childhood sap the lives of those who dwell in the crowded quarters of the city as they do not sap the lives of those who have access to air and light.

Now these parks were purchased for the purpose of giving access to air and light to those who need it the most. They are life-saving and health-saving stations.

What is more valuable to a city than the lives of its people ?

It is against these measures of health and life that Mr. McCall, the Tammany candidate, protests.

And he calls his policy a policy of economy !

It is a policy of outrageous extravagance. It is a policy of wasting not only money, not only things, but human life.

And what does he offer instead of these wasted lives ? It requires patience to listen to any proposition in which there is an implication that for the wasting of such wealth there can be any compensation. The only thing which he names that can be regarded as a price for these lives is reduced taxes, as if reduced taxes could relieve the burden in dollars and cents which the loss of life and health brings upon the poor of the city, and therefore upon all the people of the city.

And what guarantee has the city that even so pitiful compensation would be paid ?

There is only one answer : the record of Tammany.

What is that record ?

It has been rewritten afresh in departments of the State which have been under Tammany rule. As a consequence of offenses committed during a few months' administration of those departments indictments have been found in several counties of the State. Indictments are not convictions, but a succession of indictments do not follow the honest and efficient management of any branch of the government.

Tammany rule means big profits to favored contractors and " easy money " to political bosses and their henchmen. The fact that these bosses and their henchmen find it to their political advantage to distribute in cash or jobs a part of their gains among some of the poor does not change in the least the fact that corruption is always a form of extravagance which weighs most heavily upon those least able to bear it. What such a system means in the Police Department was shown in the Becker case and its sequels. And for the condition in the Police Department, as for the condition in other branches of the city government, Tammany and its allies are responsible.

Which will the people of New York have—a government conducted for the benefit of a privileged few, who divide a modicum of their gains among those of the poor who are willing to accept their favor and to give in return political allegiance, or a government conducted for the benefit of all the people, providing fresh air where the individual can not get fresh air for himself, insuring to the babies of the city the clean milk to which they are entitled, providing for the people protection against the criminal which they cannot individually provide for themselves, and devoting its energies to the purpose of making the city as nearly as possible a place in which every one who wishes to can live in security, health, and comfort ?

THE CONTROVERSY WITH JAPAN

Neither the Government of the United States nor that of Japan has made public the diplomatic correspondence that has been going on between the two governments since the Webb Land Bill became a law in California. Neither country is in a position to form an opinion of the justice of the formal claims of Japan or the justice and fairness of the position of the American Government. In the absence of knowledge journalistic enterprise takes the form of surmises and guesses ; all without adequate basis of fact, and many of them no doubt misleading, if not intentionally mischievous. It is a misfortune that the means of news transmission between the two countries is so inadequate. If much of the news of American opinion and current history sent to Japan by cable were edited for the purpose of fostering misunderstanding and arousing animosity, the work could hardly be better done. The really significant events and expressions of opinion are either ignored or receive incidental attention, while every offensive speech, however unimportant, is solemnly reported, and every action which may be construed as unfriendly is treated as if it were a matter of international importance.

And in like manner any happening in

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Japan that can be interpreted as inspired by anti-American feeling is promptly reported to the people in this country, and generally in grossly exaggerated form. An American who happened to be in the cities in which, last April, mobs were said to be raging in the streets clamoring for war is filled with amazement at the facility with which journalistic ingenuity turns mole-hills into mountains. Intelligence and integrity in the transmission of news between the two countries are matters of prime international importance. For ignorance is the prolific source of prejudice, hatred, and strife, and the mist of misconception of the Japanese character and spirit which has spread over this country during the past few years is so noticeable as to give rise to the suspicion that it has been artificially generated with no friendly intention toward either country.

When the time for public discussion comes, this unfriendly opinion, of which many honest people are the dupes, is likely to be intensified by those light-minded, irresponsible public men who speak first and inform themselves afterward, to whom questions of relations with a foreign country furnish both occasion and material for that kind of patriotic appeal to a constituency or to a vote—Irish, German, Jewish, Southern, Far Western—which makes up in offensiveness what it lacks in knowledge. To men of this type courtesy to a foreign government is "truckling," and good manners in international dealings undemocratic. Senator Root, who has had large experience in such matters, was absolutely right when he declared in a recent speech that in international discussions spirit and manner are as important as claims and arguments.

The modern world stands at the parting of the ways; it must choose whether East and West are to be friendly rivals for power and trade in the future, or whether they are to waste the most precious possessions of civilization—time, resources, opportunities, men, prosperity—in repeating the ancient blunders of antagonism, injustice, prejudice, race hatred. The men who are to settle the policy of the United States in the Far East need sound judgment in recognizing and dealing with actual conditions, both social and economic; but they also need breadth of view and the light of the imagination, for they will be shaping a long future, and holding not only golden opportunities of fortune but the highest interests of civilization in their keeping. A generation ago Anson G. Burlingame was regarded by many professional diplomatists as a dreamer because he formulated and eloquently urged a large-minded and disinterested policy toward China. He saw what men who lacked imagination failed to see, and it is largely to his wisdom that China to-day regards the American as its friend rather than as a predatory exploiter. There are those who deride the diplomacy that is based on Christian principles as unpractical and sentimental; but there is no other enduring basis for relations between nations; no other diplomacy can clear the atmosphere of the world of suspicion and fear and prepare the way for lifting the burden which the need of colossal armaments imposes on modern nations. The application of Christian principles to international relations is the only pathway to peace; and justice, fairness, and courtesy are the only qualities that are effective in laying, broad and deep, the foundations of comity between nations and of world-wide prosperity.

It is in this spirit that this country must deal with Japan in the endeavor to settle the matters at issue between the two nations. These matters must presently be submitted to the country, and as its contribution to the solution of the problems presented The Outlook repeats the suggestions made two months ago:

I. Allow Japan to regulate emigration to the United States (as she is now doing) with the renewed understanding between our Government and hers that she is not to permit emigration *en masse* or in even such a volume or of such a kind as would be socially, economically, or politically embarrassing to us in the Pacific Coast States.

II. Grant the right of naturalization to individual Japanese of proper personal qualifications who are now permanently settled in the United States, and to individual Japanese who may hereafter come here under the terms of the understanding mentioned in the foregoing paragraph—such applicants for naturalization being required to present a passport from the Japanese Government with the indorsement "expatriation authorized," as a guarantee that the Japanese Government approves of the bearer's abandonment of Japanese allegiance.

III. Give the American Government in its agreement with the Japanese Government the expressed right to exclude without appeal all Japanese immigrants who do not come to this country with proper passports from their own Government, and to deport all found here without such papers. This assumes, of course, that the Japanese now here will be given the opportunity to obtain, if their right to them can be shown, the necessary passports.

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THE GENERAL CONVENTION

The General Convention of the Episcopal Church, held in New York City, is over. The shoutings and the tumults of the debates are dead. It now only remains to apply the pragmatic test—what has been accomplished? For sixteen working days 106 bishops and 610 clerical and lay delegates have been assembled. What is the net result?

The Convention began with a very noble service in the Cathedral, which was crowded to the doors, and with a very noble sermon by Bishop Lawrence, listened to with profound attention and universal assent. It was fitting that the Bishop of Massachusetts should take as his definite subject "Religious Education," and that he should present clearly and forcibly the truth that in all real education religion is fundamental. Quoting from the message of the Bishops at the last General Convention held in New York City, in 1880, the Bishop declared: "We should endeavor to throw ourselves into the living, breathing world around us, and speak to the living present rather than to the dead past. . . . The Church must reach out with a stronger hand, a warmer heart, and firmer voice on behalf of social righteousness. . . . The members of this Church appreciate more keenly than the masses that the masses of men, women, and children who are hidden in the intricate mechanism of this industrial age in the mines, mills, and workshops, out upon the prairies and lonely valleys, are real men, women, and children for whom Christ gave his life."

The business of the Convention was transacted in the House of Bishops and the House of Deputies, both clerical and lay; but the heart of the Convention was in the joint session of the two houses, held in the cathedral, at which were presented by missionaries and by laymen the world-wide work of the Church and the world-wide needs of humanity. These meetings were great, not only in attendance, but in depth of interest and fervor of spirit; and in the cathedral even more than in the synod buildings, where the two houses sat, the spirit of the Church revealed itself, and its aspiration, vigor, and enthusiasm were felt. Conspicuous among these greater meetings stands the meeting of the Woman's Auxiliary, at which more than twenty-five hundred women received the communion, and at which a gift of more than $307,000 was presented for missions. So many were the auxiliary meetings, and so great the range of subjects discussed, that the meetings of the Convention itself seemed almost a rivulet among deeper and broader currents.

The House of Clerical and Lay Deputies showed itself keenly sensitive to the spirit of the times and manifested a marked determination to adapt the machinery of the Church to changed modern conditions. That the Church may minister to all men the Deputies are committed to a revised and enlarged Hymnal; the revision and enrichment of the Prayer-Book; the modernizing of the lectionary; and greater flexibility in the use of the liturgy. These are but surface indications of a deep-seated purpose to vitalize the methods of the Church. The large attention given to religious education promises much for the coming generation, and the quickened interest in missionary work was one of the most hopeful features of the Convention. The necessity of decentralization for efficiency was frankly accepted in the creation of provincial synods. Both houses showed wise conservatism in remitting for further consideration the problem of a racial episcopate for the Southern Negro and the vexed problem of a change in the name of the Church.

This Convention of 1913 will stand out in history for its strong and wise social sympathies. It was a gathering of Christian men to whom nothing human was foreign. It is definitely committed to the principle of one day's rest in seven for every worker; a weekly half-holiday; to the principle of social justice; and to the application, without fear or favor, of the Gospel to industrial relations.

More important than any actual legislation was the inner spirit of the Convention, and the fine Christian temper displayed in this representative gathering is most encouraging. Frankly lamenting the aloofness and exclusiveness of past days, there was manifested a strong purpose to enter into closer relations with the other churches of Christendom. The Convention faced the issue of federation in a debate which lasted the greater part of the whole day. The extreme Churchman fought against federation, but broader counsels prevailed, and henceforth the Episcopal Church will be officially represented in the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, and the Board of Missions has authority to co-operate with similar bodies in other communions. The Convention is definitely committed to Christian unity. To that ultimate

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goal it is proceeding with caution, but at the same time with inflexible determination.

In point of constructive legislation, in the rejection of measures which, like the establishment of a final court of appeal, in the expression of sympathy with other Christian communions, and willingness to recede from its position of aloofness, this conservative Church put itself in line with the movement which is beginning to be felt in all churches, and which does not involve in any sense a departure from loyalty to the fundamental faith of the past, but which, escaping from a narrow ecclesiasticism and rigid dogmatism, and from all kinds of self-sufficiency, is to make the Church, not a fortified town in which sacred treasures are preserved from the attacks of unbelief, nor a beautiful shrine kept apart in an alien world, but a messenger of the Christ who came to give the greatest gifts to men lavishly, to stand in the highways and distribute to the needy, to preach to the oppressed the gospel of freedom and to the oppressor the gospel of divine stewardship; to be in all things, in a restless and eager world, the brother of all striving men, the leader of all movements which make for the salvation of society.

LABOR EFFICIENCY

Mr. Garrison, the Secretary of War, recently received a delegation of workmen from the Government arsenal at Watertown, Massachusetts. Several Representatives in Congress were with the workmen. The protest was made against the so-called Taylor system. For four years this system has been in force at the Watertown arsenal.

What is the Taylor system? It is the systematizing of processes of manufacture. Its aim is to carry on these processes in a more orderly manner than before.

It rests, in the first place, on the theory that the more economical way of doing work may hardly be ascertained from the workman who does the work. It is rather to be ascertained from the specialist. It must be reached through a long and painstaking study. It must be reached by utilizing measurements of the time required by the various elements of a job. It demands much knowledge which the workman does not have and cannot be expected to have.

The system rests also on the theory that the current rate of wages does not correspond to the employees' best effort. The present rate of wages is far from being the best obtainable. If the most efficient method of doing a piece of work is found out, it may be well worth the employee's while to approach this method or even to improve upon it. For this additional compensation should be paid to him.

And yet three hundred and forty-nine out of a total of three hundred and seventy-three men employed in the various departments of the Watertown arsenal petition that this system, now in supposedly successful operation, should be immediately discontinued! Among the reasons are the following:

(1) We object to the use of the stop-watch as it is used as a means of speeding men up to a point beyond their normal capacity. It is humiliating and savors too much of the slave-driver.

(2) A comparison of the record of resulting accidents . . . will convince the most skeptical that it is dangerous to limb and life, and we claim that a large percentage of these accidents are the direct result of the driving system at this plant.

(3) We believe that this system, instead of producing what was claimed it would produce—high wages to employees with the low cost of production—has worked exactly the opposite, inasmuch as the investigation into the wages paid (outside of premium) will show that there has been no material increase of wages, while the cost of production has been increased to such an extent that large deficits are being reported.

To the petition of the Watertown workers Secretary Garrison made no reply on his own account. He handed to the delegation a copy of the report of General William Crozier, Chief of the Bureau of Ordinance, on the working of the system, and asked the delegation to return, if they wished to do so, after studying what General Crozier had to say.

Here is what General Crozier has to say concerning the three points above mentioned:

Complaint No. 1.—This is the general complaint that the time-study system is used as a means of speeding men up abnormally; that it is humiliating and savors of the slave-driver. The fact of speeding men up abnormally has been denied, and there ought to be nothing humiliating to an honest workman in an effort to arrive by careful study at a measure of the time required to do a given piece of work in order to set for it a rate which is just, and which at the same time enables a workman to make higher pay than ever before.

Complaint No. 2.—This complaint charges the premium system with an increase of accidents, and has been answered with reference to the first petition (this reference is to a previous petition in which the complaint met with a denial).

Complaint No. 3.—This complaint is a state-

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ment that the system has not produced the high wages promised. The complaint is that there has been no increase of wages except through premiums paid. As the only increase promised by the system is through premiums, the complaint falls to the ground.

This is not General Crozier's first comment on the efficiency of the Taylor system at Watertown. In his annual reports in 1911 and 1912 he emphatically favored the continuance of that system. In his report for 1912 he estimates the savings for the year due to the Taylor system at $240,000. He shows, furthermore, in his report just submitted that with the same eight-hour day as before many workmen are earning premiums averaging about twenty per cent of their regular wages, while the Government profits by an enlarged output of about sixty per cent.

In the face of these facts, why should the petition have been submitted? General Crozier states that the reasons for granting the petitioners' requests have no basis in fact. It is probably true that there is a fear among many workmen of "sweat-shop" conditions under this Taylor system—that is, that they may be forced to produce more than they should humanely be asked to do. That this is not the case is shown in the fact that there have been no protests against the system except from those associations of workmen which would seek to limit output. These have been against the system from the start, and General Crozier does not hesitate to say that they are behind the petition in question. He specifically declares that "in many instances the petitions do not represent the real sentiment of the persons whose names are attached to them. . . . A number of employees were examined individually as to their views. Some stated that they liked the system and had refused to sign the petitions. Several said that they did not wish to sign but had done so under compulsion. Also it was discovered that the facts alleged in the petitions were not asserted by a considerable number of the alleged signers, since many signatures were obtained without showing the matter subscribed to, to which the signatures were afterwards copied—the signers only knowing that they were opposing the 'Taylor system.' . . . I think the petitions are due both to coercion and the teachings of labor organizations."

It is a pity that organized labor should have shown opposition to the increase of the individual's productivity. This attitude seems the stranger when we remember that increased individual production can be secured with a reduction of fatigue, and that it is an ultimate gain to the wage-earners as well as to all classes.

But this is not all of the matter. It has another and sinister aspect. After investigation General Crozier is convinced that the labor leaders have promised that if the workmen lose any extra pay by the abolition of the Taylor system, they, the leaders, will use their political power to get Congress to raise their regular wages correspondingly; that is to say, the political power of the unions will be used to secure the same increase of pay as is had under the premium system without any corresponding efficiency.

The question then arises, Who shall control our Government's policy?—the heads of government like General Crozier, who do not believe in rewarding all labor according to the efficiency of the weakest man, or those labor unions which do believe in so rewarding it? There ought to be no question as to the answer.

MRS. PANKHURST IN AMERICA

A POLL OF THE PRESS

THE Immigration Law names among persons to be denied entrance to this country those who have been convicted of, or who admit having committed, a felony or other crime or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude.

The phrase "moral turpitude" was construed by the officials at the Port of New York in the case of Mrs. Pankhurst, the British suffragette, with what the New York "Tribune" calls "unintelligent rigor." In other words, the officials temporarily held back Mrs. Pankhurst. They thus served, according to the New York "Times," "the purpose of an advertising agent for an illustrious British star." The paper adds:

The object of our law is to keep out undesirable immigrants, not visiting Castros or Pankhursts. It was a foregone conclusion on Saturday that the eloquent Manchester disturber of the public peace would be released after a brief ordeal and would be enabled to begin her profitable American lecturing tour

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with a fresh record of martyrdom. It is a pity, therefore, that she was not permitted to come in without any fuss.

The terms of her release signify nothing at all. She has no intention of settling here, or of staying a day after she has taken in all the money she can get for the treasury of British militancy.

"For the Mrs. Pankhurst pankhursting in England the feeling of most Americans is perhaps pity for a fanatic or a brain out of equilibrium," says the New York "Sun," but it points out that the question was as to whether the offenses of which Mrs. Pankhurst had been found guilty were purely political. If so, they did not brand her with "moral turpitude" unless, as the New York paper adds, "the militancy she urges comes under the head of depravity and vileness."

It does come under that head, according to the Richmond, Missouri, "Conservator." It says:

The visit of an ignorant and depraved woman of the type of Mrs. Pankhurst can in a very short time do more harm than can be rectified in a dozen years. She is ignorant and depraved by reason of not knowing how to act, and not by reason of any laxity of nature in endowing her.

The Englishwomen have not shown themselves capable of intelligently using the ballot. The person who uses bombs and the torch and who wantonly destroys property is not to be intrusted with the right to vote the same as the law-abiding citizen. Such a one should be incarcerated the same as any other criminal, and no distinction be made.

The Chicago "Inter Ocean" agrees in this. It declares:

If deliberate incendiarism, if the incitement of half-crazed fanatics to assault, arson, pouring acids in mail-boxes, and the destruction of the property of peaceful citizens, does not present evidences of "moral turpitude," in the name of all the canons of right and wrong, what does?

Morality consists in conformity to the standards or rules of life established by the community in which we live. Insanity is the only excuse for the criminal acts of Mrs. Pankhurst in which she has run amuck against all the usages and duties of life in the country that has no right to dump a maniac or moral pestilence on our shores.

Another Chicago paper, however, the "Tribune," says of Mrs. Pankhurst:

She has burned property and incited arsonettes to the destruction of mails, windows, and Cabinet Ministers' hats and skins, but it would be beyond any one but a bureaucrat to hunt for evidences of moral turpitude in all this.

"The decision to admit Mrs. Pankhurst appears to have come from the President himself," remarks the Buffalo "Express." "If she keeps her promise to refrain from talking militancy or from inciting any militant campaign in this country, the decision probably will not greatly displease any considerable number of persons on this side of the Atlantic except the conservative leaders of the suffrage movement, who think that their cause will be damaged by the presence in this country of the English firebrand." Most newspapers agree that Mrs. Pankhurst's visit may prove embarrassing for American suffragists. The Minneapolis "Journal" chronicles:

In offering to give a public dinner in her honor, a body of New York suffragists is careful to make public declaration that the courtesy is not to be taken as implicating either the organization or its members "in any approval of the use of physical force in political revolution."

The Charlottesville, Virginia, "Progress" says:

Suppose Mrs. Emmeline P. should attempt to introduce her militant methods into America and carry our women off their feet in a campaign of slander and assault, and perhaps even arson? . . . She cannot introduce her methods unless our women are willing, and they are not.

The Los Angeles "Express" thus comments:

If the arrival of Mrs. Pankhurst meant the introduction of British suffragette methods into the campaign for equal rights in the United States, it would be looked upon as a public calamity, and the truest friends of the movement would be among the first to protest against her presumption. . . .

The La Crosse, Wisconsin, "Tribune" reports the action of the Illinois suffragists:

The Illinois women believe they and their sisters in other States are on trial before the men, that the latter are fairly open to conviction, and that conduct that might be interpreted as approving or even condoning the practices of the Pankhurst school would serve materially to prejudice the men against the movement.

Mrs. Anna Shaw, agreeing with the above, comes to bat with a means of notifying American men that Mrs. Pankhurst's programme is under the ban here.

Miss Jane Addams, the First Vice-President of the Illinois Equal Suffrage Association, recently declined, so the Chicago "Inter Ocean" informs us, to serve on the Pankhurst Lecture Committee. The paper thus reports the matter:

By way of preliminary Miss Addams expresses hesitancy in criticising Mrs. Pankhurst because of admiration for her indomitable courage and capacity for martyrdom and because

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of the difficulty in understanding the situation in England, which is unlike that here or in any other country. Then Miss Addams strikes at the core of the situation by making these points, in brief:

"The ballot represents the substitution of public opinion for force.

"Women want the vote because it means equal consideration for their opinions, irrespective of the fact that they are physically weaker.

"When women go back to the use of force they break the very principle they are endeavoring to establish.

"When men and women use force against each other there can be but one result: Men with their brute force will win.

"Militancy is therefore a great mistake, both fundamentally and politically."

The Milwaukee "Sentinel" thus sums up the question:

Mrs. Pankhurst and her followers have unquestionably done more harm to the cause of suffrage in England than can be undone in twenty years. Their bedlamite antics have simply put "votes for women" out of the running as a political possibility until the odium they have brought on the cause wears off. Its best friends in England admit that.

So, aside from the skulking criminality of the methods associated with her name, Mrs. Pankhurst thoroughly deserves to be cold-shouldered by suffragists in America. . . .

Possibly the equal franchise federation of Pennsylvania has taken that view of it in voting to ignore Mrs. Pankhurst officially when she visits the State. . . .

On the other hand, breaking a butterfly on a wheel is poor sport. And as Uncle Sam is just now winning plaudits for his forbearance with Mexico, one would be sorry to see him go gunning with buckshot for a humming-bird like Mrs. Pankhurst. . . .

Mrs. Pankhurst is a frail little lady of many estimable qualities. Her only trouble is the hysteria of a fixed idea, which seems to be dangerously contagious in England, but not here because American women have too much political sense to imagine they can get the ballot by smashing shop window, pouring acid into mail-boxes, and clawing elderly statesmen on the golf links. . . .

If Mrs. P. is really and sincerely so "het up" that she feels she can't live without the ballot, let her, we repeat, settle in one of our suffrage States out West, where she can frequently have the pure joy of voting a ballot anywhere from five to ten feet long, and be pestered to do it at that.

THE MOHONK CONFERENCE

STAFF CORRESPONDENCE

THE old adage, "What is everybody's business is nobody's business," is disproved every year toward the end of October. If there is any one matter that is the business of everybody in the United States, it is the welfare of the country's dependent peoples; and yet, when the annual Conference is held at Lake Mohonk, there appears abundant proof that this, which is everybody's business, is also the specific business of certain intelligent, disinterested, expert, and efficient men and women.

The thirty-first annual Conference of Friends of the Indian and Other Dependent Peoples, held last week in the large and picturesque hotel at Lake Mohonk, on the summit of the Shawangunk Mountains, in Ulster County, New York, again afforded evidence of this fact. Here were men and women who had given years of faithful service to the education and protection of the Indians; here were some who had recently entered upon that service with fresh vigor and open minds; here were some who years ago had gone to the Philippines, risking unknown dangers of life in the tropics, because they wanted to have some share in the novel and great undertaking on the part of the Nation; here were some who had gone to those islands in the spirit of adventure, had seen the process of transformation going on under the hands of the representatives of the Government, and had been drawn by the wonder of it into taking part in this greatest adventure of all; and here were people who had taken part in a less conspicuous but no less effective work of Americans in the service of Porto Rico. Acquaintance with such people is a good cure for pessimism.

"How much influence has this Conference had in determining policies regarding the Philippines?" was a question more than once asked last week. The impossibility of answering such a question definitely is obvious. One cannot measure influence as one measures water power or electricity. That this Conference, however, has been a powerful, if not the most powerful, factor in the determination of the present Indian policy, there is every reason to believe; for the time which has elapsed since it was first called into exist-

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ence is long enough to allow the effect of its influence to be seen. It originated in a conversation between members of a group of people gathered in a little dwelling on a Western Indian reservation. One of this group was Mr. Albert K. Smiley; and the next year he invited this group and others to his hotel, to continue the conversation. There were two members of that group at the Conference this year; but Mr. Smiley himself was not to be seen. He and his wife, who had long been his coadjutor, died last year, and, rich in years and in the affection of many who knew them and of many more who never saw their faces, left it to others to continue what they had so long carried on. It was hard to believe that Mr. Smiley was not there in bodily presence. Impressive as was the tribute to him given in the simple commemorative service on Wednesday afternoon of last week, no tribute could be as great as that rendered by his brother and his brother's wife, Mr. and Mrs. Daniel Smiley, in the continuance of the Conference as naturally as if the form of the kindly, gracious, and really great man who established it were visible. And in this thirty-first Conference there was evident in as full measure as ever that spirit of open-mindedness, of willingness to try to understand all points of view expressed, of emphasis on information and fact, of placing high value on material welfare but the highest value upon the development of the human mind and character, which emanated from Albert K. Smiley and dominated those who were in his presence. Whoever may have feared lest the passing of Albert Smiley might mean the termination of these annual Conferences, or the diminution of their power and significance, could find in this year's Conference no ground for concern. Whatever influence they have had will continue in kind and, there is every reason to expect, in measure.

As in years past, one day was devoted to the interests of the Indian tribes of the continent; another to those of the people, or rather peoples, of the Philippines; and the third to the Porto Ricans.

Though not first in order on the programme, the topic first in timely interest was the Philippines. This timely interest arises from the fact that President Wilson has recently appointed a new Governor-General of the islands, Mr. Harrison, and has instituted an important change in the character of the Philippine Government. As The Outlook has already reported, the President has taken action designed to turn an American majority on the Philippine Commission into a Filipino majority, thus making American control of the Philippine Government no longer a matter of decision in Manila, but a matter of legislative or executive order in Washington.

No one who has any concern for the safety and development of the races in the Philippines or for the good name and good faith of the United States, whether approving this act of the President or not, can regard it lightly. That it largely increases the power of that class of Filipinos that is already politically dominant in the islands no one questions. That it is a step in the direction of independence is avowed by those who are responsible for taking it. With scarcely an exception, the participants in the discussion of the Philippines at the Conference who referred to this matter at all spoke soberly and with restraint, but made it evident that they regarded the experiment as a perilous one.

To understand what this means, it is necessary to realize the fact that as yet the majority of the people of the archipelago do not and really cannot take part in the general government of the islands by voting, and that only a very small part, in fact a limited group, of Filipinos is represented directly in the Philippine Government. Naturally, those who are active and prominent in political affairs there are those landed or well-to-do people who received their education under the Spanish régime. Consequently the conferring of political power upon the Filipinos now does not mean conferring political power on all the people, but upon a comparatively small proportion of them, and particularly a limited group. Those who favor the President's action apparently believe that this small group is representative of the peoples of the islands and can be trusted to consider the interests of the people, even of the people who are politically impotent. Those who see peril in the President's action evidently believe that no such aristocratic group, and in particular no aristocratic group that has been trained in Spanish traditions and in Spanish methods of government, is really representative of the people or can be as fully trusted as the American Government to lead the undeveloped majority to that stage of development in which they will be able really to secure a measurable degree of self-government.

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As Bishop Oldham, the Methodist Bishop for Southern Asia, pointed out, before the advent of the American Government in the Philippines the old tribal idea of the submission of the common people to the tribal leader had not only been intensified by Spanish influence, but had been degraded by being transferred from the tribal leader to the *ilustrado*, the big landholder, and thus the Filipinos had learned to follow submissively those with whom they have really no community of interest.

The influence of America in the Philippines is changing this. The well-born children who are receiving American education are different from the well-born children of fifteen years ago, who would not think of going to school without having a servant perform the menial task of carrying the school-books; and instead, as Professor Monroe, of the Teachers College of New York City, pointed out, the child of the Filipino aristocrat mingles with the common crowd and is willing to take a hand at the pick or shovel to help in grading an athletic field. When these children have grown up, the attitude of the educated Filipinos toward the responsibilities of government will be to a large extent different from what that attitude is to-day. The President's appointees to the Philippine Commission are men who have been trained in the school of aristocracy. They belong to the *ilustrado* class. This is no reflection upon the individual appointees personally. Judge Mapa, who has served for several years on the Supreme Bench of the islands, and now has been named as a new member of the Commission, is an *ilustrado*, but that does not mean that he has not done good service. The point is that putting such men in power is not an extension of democracy. Jaime C. de Veyra, another appointee, is, for instance, the owner of nearly all the island of Leyte. The people who elected him to the Assembly are his dependents. Discussion of the individual appointees of the President had no place in the papers or addresses of the Conference. These instances are here given simply to illustrate the point which more than one speaker made, that making the Commission (which is the final authority in the islands) a body controlled by Filipinos does not mean the extension of self-government to the Filipino people, and that whether it will lead to such an extension is a grave question.

The suggestion that America might rid herself of the burden of the Philippines by forming a council of the Powers to control the island evoked no approving response. Not only was it evident that those who remembered the United States' experience with Samoa felt that it would be inexcusable to repeat a mistake, however excusable when made in the first instance, but it was also evident that the company there agreed with the view expressed by Bishop Brent when he said that the effort of America was "not to rid herself of a difficulty, but to rise to an opportunity and to render a service." It must not be supposed that the Conference consisted of clergymen and teachers alone, though only such have been cited here; it included those who had been in the Philippine service, those who had traveled and observed there, and those who had some material or personal interest there, as well as, among the auditors, those who were there because they were American citizens sharing in the responsibility.

That the members of such a diversified company should come to a common opinion with regard to every detail of such a question as that of the Philippines is not to be expected; but their general agreement on matters of fundamental policy was apparent, and this was the more noteworthy as it was reached from different angles. There seemed to be a general belief that the Democratic party, sobered by its responsibility and enlightened by the practical work of administration, would follow a policy not fundamentally inconsistent with that to which the discussion of Mohonk Conferences in the past have led as a conclusion, and which in the main has been practiced by those who have borne the chief responsibilities in the Philippines since civil government was there instituted. Perhaps in this the wish was father to the thought.

In the discussion of Indian affairs, to which the first day of the Conference was devoted, two main subjects were considered.

The first of these was the present condition of the Five Civilized Tribes, which have their habitat in Oklahoma. Among these the Indian problem is complicated by the fact that these Indians are citizens with a right to vote, and yet are, in varying degrees, under the tutelage and guardianship of the Federal Government. That there have been grave wrongs perpetrated, wrongs especially against Indian children, there was abundant testimony to show. The probate courts of a

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number of counties in Oklahoma are so crowded with cases involving the property of Indian minors that even a just and capable judge cannot guard these wards of the public against the carelessness or dishonesty of their guardians; and a dishonest judge has opportunities for profiting at the expense of these Indians which ought not to be put into his way. Moreover, the question of the education of these Indians is a serious one, because the people of the State are naturally reluctant to provide schools for a mass of non-taxpayers; while the question of transforming these Indians into taxpayers is obstructed by circumstances attending the problem of properly distributing their property among them. One of the complications of the problem of these tribes involves the question of the conservation of great natural resources.

The other subject relating to Indian affairs was that of the Navajo and other Indians on the public domain. While the problem of the Five Civilized Tribes seems to have been caused by the retardation of the process of properly dividing among the members of those tribes their common property, the problem of the Navajos is just the opposite. There is danger that these progressing Indians, who are prospering under a system involving the communal use of land under conditions where some form of communal use of land seems to be absolutely necessary, may suffer real injury if care is not taken to prevent an unwise method of abandoning their reservation system. It was urged at the Conference that a temporary commission be formed by the Government to study into this question and prepare and administer a wise and wholesome plan.

Limits of space prevent any further account of the discussion of these two Indian problems here, as well as of the discussion of the problems of Porto Rico. So far as they can be considered by The Outlook, they must be reserved for editorial treatment at some other time. ERNEST HAMLIN ABBOTT.

AMERICAN INTERNATIONALISM

BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT

This address, delivered at Rio de Janeiro on October 24, is the first of the four most important addresses to be made by Mr. Roosevelt in South America. The approximate dates and the places of the others have been already given in The Outlook. We need not point out the importance at this time of such a discussion as is contained in the following article or its wide scope in dealing with the fundamental principles which should govern the relations of what Mr. Roosevelt terms "the two Americas."

Mr. Roosevelt arrived at Rio de Janeiro on October 21. The newspaper despatches state that his reception was almost unprecedented; he was met as he came ashore by all the Brazilian Cabinet Ministers, the Presidents of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, a Parliamentary committee and other high Government officials, members of the Diplomatic Corps, and many other officials and notables. A breakfast and reception in his honor were given by the President of Brazil, Senhor Marshal Hermes de Fonseca. The address that follows was delivered before the Government University on Friday, three days after Mr. Roosevelt's arrival.—THE EDITORS.

THE Western Hemisphere is slowly working out for itself its own theory of that part of international policy which concerns both the attitude of all the American commonwealths in the face of the rest of the world, and also their dealings with one another. You, my hosts and hearers, and your guest, and our fellow-countrymen, alike belong to the young nations of the New World. Because of the fact that it is a new world, and that we are young nations, we suffer certain disadvantages and have certain peculiar difficulties of our own to face. Nevertheless, also because of these very facts, we enjoy compensating advantages which more than outweigh the disadvantages. Prominent among these advantages is the fact that we have an almost free hand for fair dealing in American international relations, being fettered by comparatively few of the wide inequalities of culture and civilization, and the bitter memories of history, which of necessity prevent any community of feeling among races which stand at the

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opposite poles of human existence; whereas in the Old World, in the huge continental mass composed of Europe, Asia, and Africa, there exist many vast and populous regions sundered from one another by the well-nigh impassable gulfs which lie between civilization and barbarism and between barbarism and pure savagery. Here in America the civilized nations do not have to fear huge military barbarisms. Neither do we have to dread the presence of vast tracts of country peopled by savages which the civilized nations must bring under control, and which, if not possessed by one efficient and civilized nation, merely become the property of some other efficient and civilized nation. Under such conditions it is practically impossible to reach a general working agreement of any kind about international conduct; for the communities—European, Asiatic, and African—stand on planes of culture and conduct which are hopelessly far apart.

In the two Americas, on the contrary, there are no such wide divisions. With negligible exceptions, all the important nations possess a common heritage of Occidental civilization, and, as compared with the other divergencies in the Old World, they possess substantially similar governmental forms and religious and cultural ideals. Again with negligible exceptions, there are no great waste spaces, tenanted only by savages, which are open to settlement by, and are the potential causes of quarrel among, the civilized Powers; the remaining tracts of land open to settlement and development—and nowhere are they larger or more inviting than here in Brazil—are substantially all within the well-settled boundaries of fully established nations. From Canada and Alaska to Patagonia; from Quebec, Montreal, and Winnipeg to Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, Buenos Aires, and Valparaiso, the leading countries and cities are held, and have been built up, by peoples differing in important respects each from the others, it is true, but sundered by no such gulfs as those which lie between the countries and capitals of Asia and Africa and those of Europe—indeed, not even by such gulfs as separate certain of the European countries.

In consequence, there is a far better chance here than elsewhere to work out some scheme of common international conduct which shall guarantee to every nation freedom from molestation by others so long as its own skirts are free from wrong-doing, and so long as it does not itself sink into a condition of mere impotent anarchy. There are two sides to consider: first, our common attitude towards Old World powers; and, second, our relations among ourselves.

Less than a century and a half have passed since the entire Western Hemisphere was held in real or titular possession by European nations; at that time the fate and ownership of the American colonies depended on the outcome of wars between nations across the seas. As late as a century ago this condition still obtained as regards all American countries except my own, and that was less than half its present size and of not a tenth its present strength. Ninety years ago the countries of Latin America had likewise achieved independence; but it was still a precarious independence, and there was still likelihood that some one of the great military European nations would re-establish itself as an American power at the expense of one or more of the struggling infant nationalities. At that time the United States was still the only American nation able to secure any hearing whatever in Europe, and even the United States could secure only a scant and impatient hearing. Now there are several American nations, prominent among which is your own, which can secure respectful hearing anywhere in the world. These American nations, such as Brazil and the United States, stand on an absolute footing of equality. One cardinal doctrine on which we all agree is that America shall not be treated as offering ground for fresh colonization or territorial aggrandizement by any Old World power. This is a doctrine of vital concern to all the nations of America; for it would be a calamity to all if any great military nation of the Old World obtained a foothold here; such an event would, in the end, force us all, under penalty of loss of our own independence, ourselves to become military powers, and to plunge this continent back into Old World conditions of armed rivalry. All of the American nations which are sufficiently advanced, such as Brazil and the United States, should participate on an absolute equality in the responsibility and development of this doctrine, as far as the interests of the Western Hemisphere as a whole are concerned. It must be made a continental and not a unilateral doctrine. It should be treated as already such, as far as concerns all American nations sufficiently advanced in stability, solidity, and potential armed strength—that is, all of our nations suffi-

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ciently stable and orderly not to invite, and strong enough to repel, Old World aggression. Both Brazil and the United States have reached this point; and so have various other American nations.

So much for the common interest of all our commonwealths in the face of non-American powers. No less vital is the matter of our own behavior towards one another, no less than towards these non-American powers.

The relations of the northern and the southern continents of the Western Hemisphere are certain to become much closer in the future. The opening of the Panama Canal will itself markedly help to make them closer, and, great though the benefits of the Canal will be to our own country, I believe that they will be, if anything, even greater to the countries of South America. I wish to see the trade between the United States and all South American countries increase; and in such intercourse the first essential is the ability to inspire confidence. Therefore, from every standpoint, I believe that the United States should scrupulously so act as to inspire confidence in her fellow-republics. It is for this reason that I feel a peculiar National pride in our having twice withdrawn from Cuba, and having intervened in San Domingo purely for San Domingo's advantage. There is no brighter chapter in our history than that which tells of these actions. The United States does not wish the territory of its neighbors. It does wish their confidence. If ever, as regards any country, intervention does unfortunately become necessary, I hope that, wherever possible, it will be a joint intervention by such Powers as Brazil and the United States, without thought of the selfish aggrandizement of any of them, and for the common good of the Western world.

With every right there must always go hand in hand a duty; and no man, and no nation, can permanently enjoy the right if he or it shirks the duty. With every privilege there must go the responsibility of exercising the privilege aright. Every American commonwealth is bound as a matter of honorable obligation to behave fairly towards its sister commonwealth; and this is an impossibility if it does not keep order and enforce justice within its own borders. Among civilized nations it is a general although not a universal rule that ability to command respect abroad is largely dependent upon the preservation of stability and order and the proper administration of justice at home.

The history of my own country teaches this lesson. Like your country, like Brazil, we had to deal with the problem of the abolition of slavery. We showed less ability than you did to deal with it in wise and cool-handed fashion. You abolished it peacefully and without bloodshed, whereas in our case it cost us a terrible civil war and brought the Nation to the verge of destruction. During that period we lost all power to help other nationalities in our hemisphere or to enforce respect from others for our own rights whether in America or elsewhere. Had we remained disunited, had we become subject to chronic revolutionary disturbance, we should have reduced ourselves to utter and shameful impotence in the face of the nations of mankind; and one result would unquestionably have been that America would once again have become subject to schemes of colonization and armed territorial occupation by Old World powers.

It is for this reason I feel, not only that you are to be congratulated, but that all of us who belong to the brotherhood of American commonwealths are to be congratulated, because of the steady growth in power, prosperity, and stability which your great Republic of Brazil has of recent years so conspicuously shown—a marvelous growth in which certain other South American republics have had their share. I believe that, just as in the nineteenth century the most striking growth feature of the civilized world was what took place in North America, so in the twentieth century the most permanently important feature will be the growth and development of South America. I believe that the present century is the century of South America.

Furthermore, I believe that the world has now grown sufficiently advanced to realize that normally the growth of one nation in prosperity and well-being is of benefit, and not harm, to other nations. Among private individuals it is normally a benefit, and not a disadvantage, to a man to live in a well-to-do neighborhood, to have neighbors who are successful in life, and to deal with men who are prosperous. For precisely similar reasons it is an advantage to a nation to have as neighbors nations which are thriving and successful. Such a nation is benefited if the other nations with which it has commercial and diplomatic relations are prosperous in their business, and therefore stable in their governmental activities. Under a republican, or

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democratic, form of government, this means that there must be an honest chance to settle differences of public opinion at the polls by votes fairly cast and fairly counted, and a willingness, when the decision has thus been fairly reached, to abide by it. This must, therefore, also mean the general recognition of the fact that cheating and swindling, whether by force or fraud, at the polls or at the nominating conventions, are well-nigh as obnoxious, and if long continued would be absolutely as obnoxious, to public morality as armed revolutionary violence itself.

From this it follows that every American nation has reason to congratulate itself on the stability and prosperity of its sister nations. I am sure that I utter the sentiments of the people of the United States when I say that their only desire, as regards neighboring countries, is to see them stable, orderly, and prosperous. Any country whose people conduct themselves in such fashion can count upon the hearty and practical friendship of the United States. If they act with reasonable efficiency and decency in social and political matters, if they keep order and discharge their just obligations, they will surely achieve national success; and it is this national success, for all of her sister republics, which the United States sincerely and earnestly desires. Chronic wrong-doing, or an impotence which results in a general loosening of the ties of civilized society, may in America, as elsewhere, ultimately force intervention by some strong and stable civilized nation, in the exercise of an international police power. Such a duty is thankless, irksome, and unpleasant, whether it be performed by England, France, or the United States, whether in Algiers or Egypt or on the Isthmus of Panama; and therefore we all hail with delight the advent to real power of such nations as Brazil, the Argentine Republic, and Chile, whose maintenance of peace and security within their own bounds, and whose efforts to substitute other and fairer methods for those of war in the settlement of international disputes in South America, are fraught with good omen for the entire Western Hemisphere.

We of the northern continent, we of the United States, hail with genuine pleasure, and with admiration and respect, your advent to positions of assured internal stability and recognized international power and control. We most earnestly desire that all our sister commonwealths of the New World may speedily achieve a like prosperity and a like stability of power in internal and external relations. Every such rise of any nation on this continent will ultimately be good for all the nations of the continent. Our common ideal, for nations as for individuals, must be to work each for his own hand in a spirit of cordial good will and brotherhood towards his neighbors. Each of us has something to learn from, and something to teach to, his neighbors. I believe that in the era which is now opening the republics of Latin America will be able to teach much to the people of my own country. The Latin-American peoples possess many qualities which it would be well for us of the north to develop. Their unquestioned superiority in intellectual brilliancy and logic will enable them, when once they have secured internal peace and governmental stability, to achieve a better solution of some of the most vital problems of popular government than any that has yet been reached in any part of the world.

The ideals of all of us are substantially the same. We believe in fair dealing among nations as among individuals. We believe in self-government by the people, which necessarily means government by a majority, easily changing as the majority changes. We further believe in using the government in the manner which will most surely aid in bettering the condition of the average men and women who make up the bulk of the nation. We have none of us more than measurably realized these ideals—neither in any nation of the two Americas, nor elsewhere. But as the years go by we are ever coming nearer to a better realization of them, and each nation among us can do its share towards helping all of us towards this better realization. It is not too much to expect that here in the New World, where the burden of inherited national animosities and of fundamental racial incompatibilities is less heavy than in the Old World, we shall be able sooner than elsewhere to reach that level of civilization where the nations shall dwell together in good will and mutual respect and helpfulness.

When once this level has been reached, each nation will strive, with sincerity, earnestness, and common sense, to solve the problems of fair dealing as among the men and women within its own borders; and it will thereby lay the foundations for the only peace permanently worth having, the peace of justice and of righteousness.

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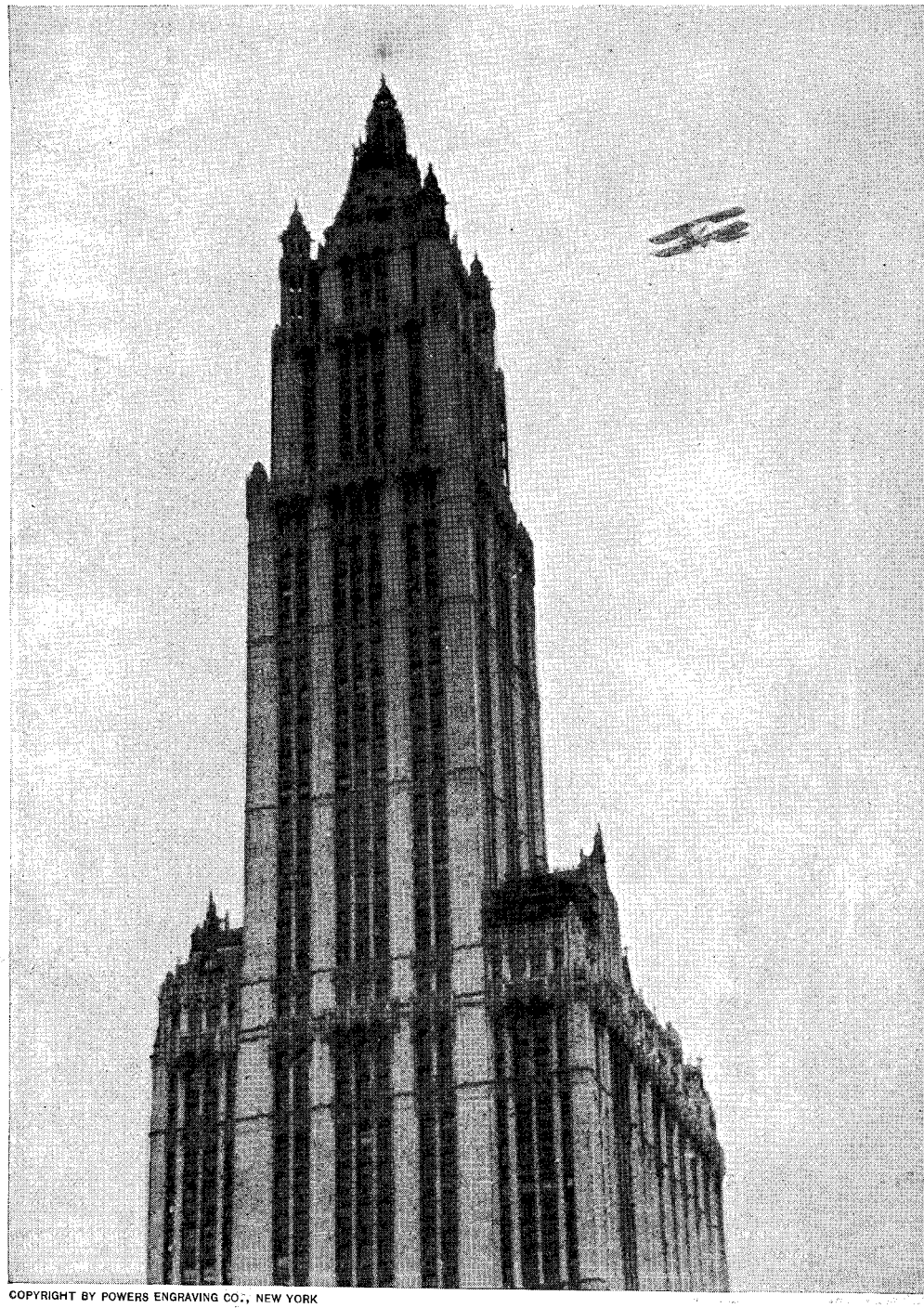
Current Events Pictorially Treated



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FLYING OVER NEW YORK'S TALLEST SKY-SCRAPER

On Columbus Day, in a high wind, five aviators flew around Manhattan Island, a distance of about 60 miles, as stated in "Ten Years of Aviation," in The Outlook of last week. W. S. Luckey, the winner in the contest, made the circuit in 52 minutes 54 seconds. In the above photograph he is seen passing the Woolworth Building

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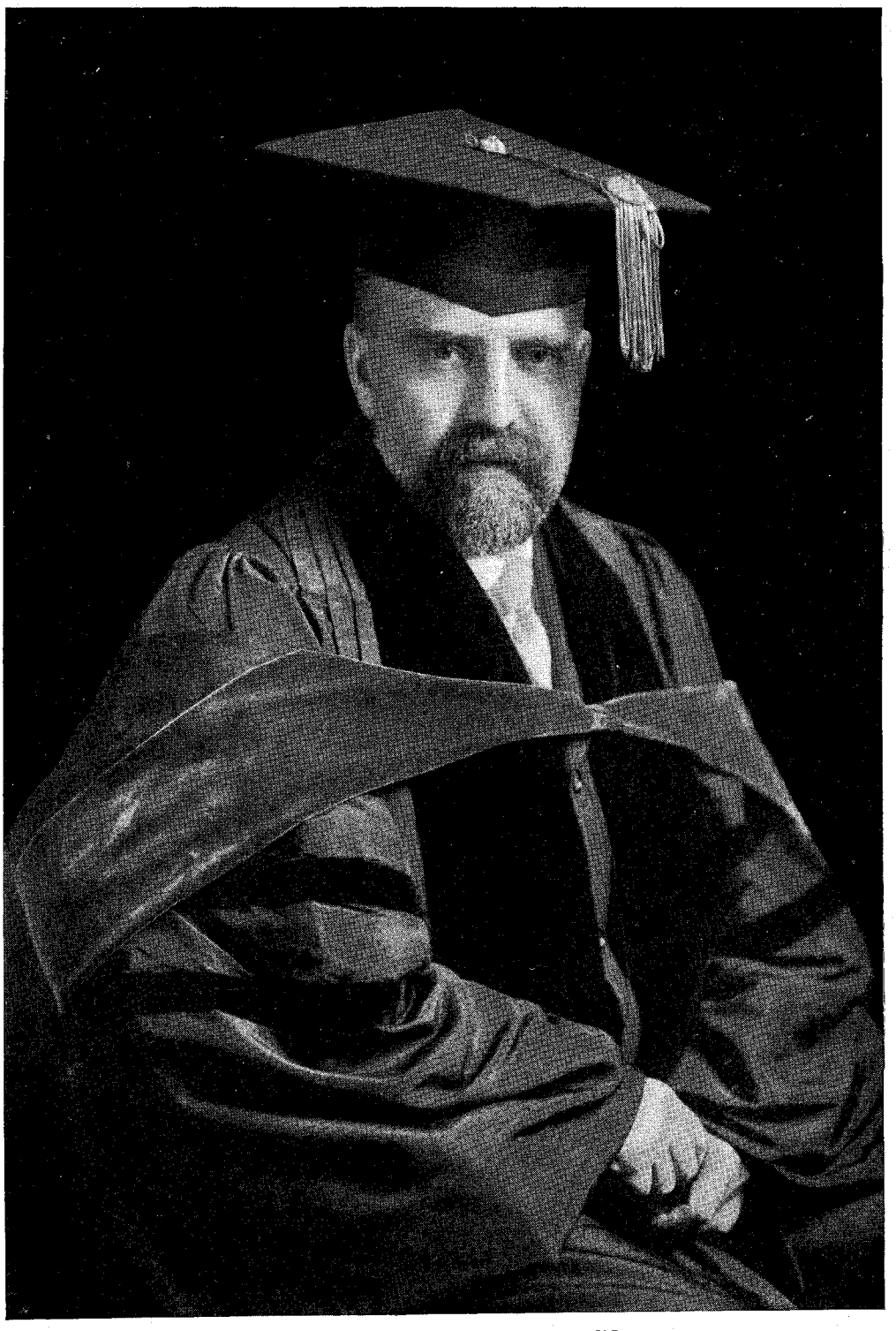

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN

Chancellor of New York University, who presided over the Lake Mohonk Conference at its recent session

See the account of the Conference on another page

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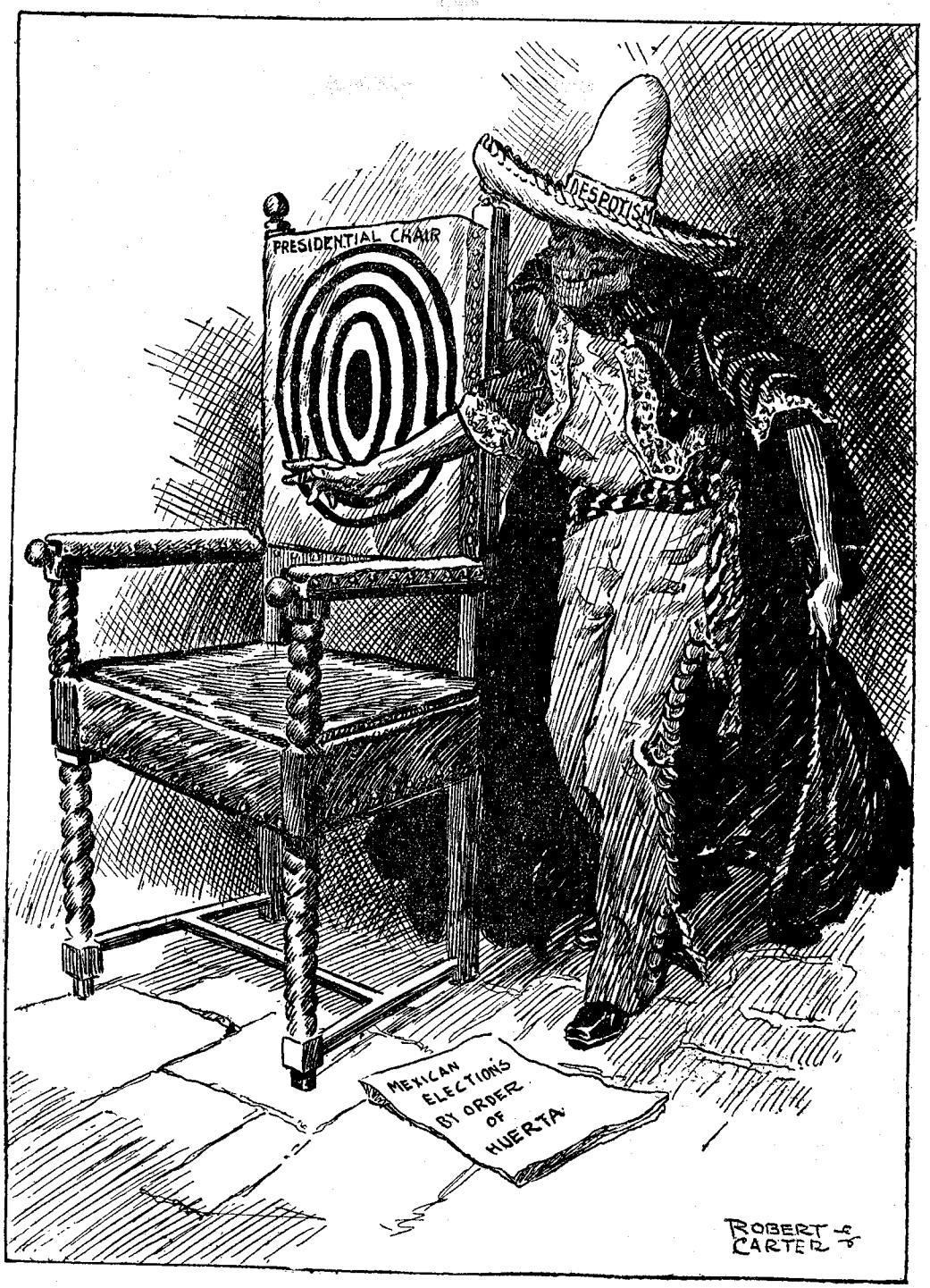

NEXT!

Cartoon by Robert Carter, in the New York "Evening Sun"

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PHOTOGRAPH BY INTERNATIONAL NEWS SERVICE

PORTRAIT OF HIS SON, BY REMBRANDT

TWO FAMOUS PAINTINGS

These paintings are among the masterpieces lately bequeathed by Benjamin Altman to the Metropolitan Museum

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PORTRAIT OF A YOUNG WOMAN, BY REMBRANDT

IN THE ALTMAN COLLECTION

of Art, New York City. The Altman benefactions are described in The Outlook of last week and this week

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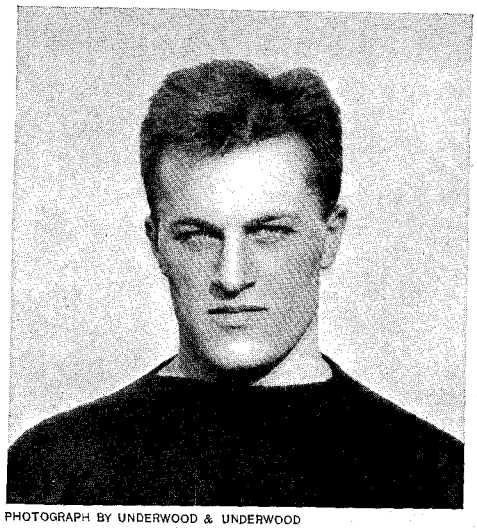
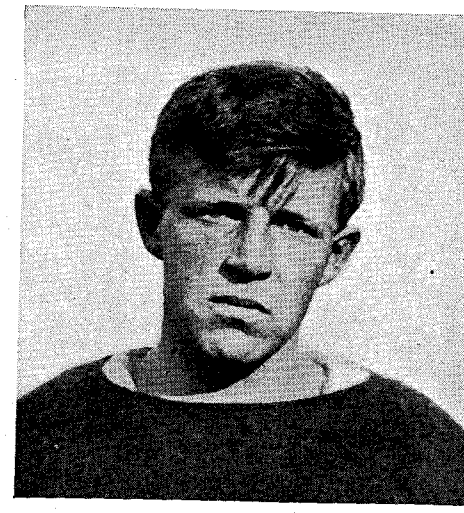
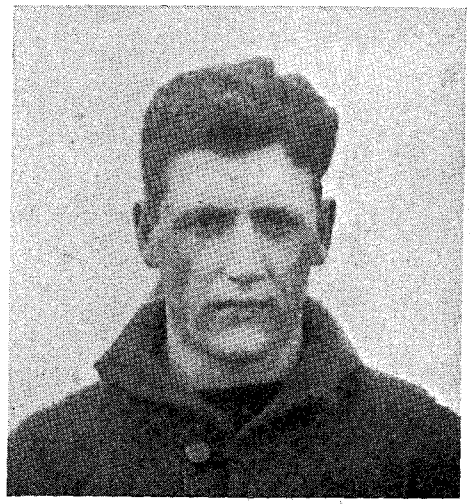


PHOTOGRAPH BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

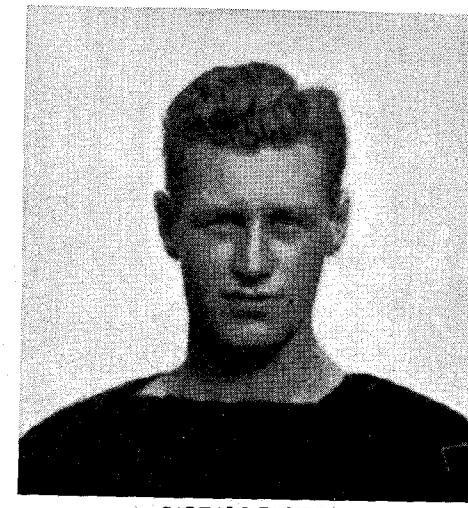
CAPTAIN STORER
Harvard University



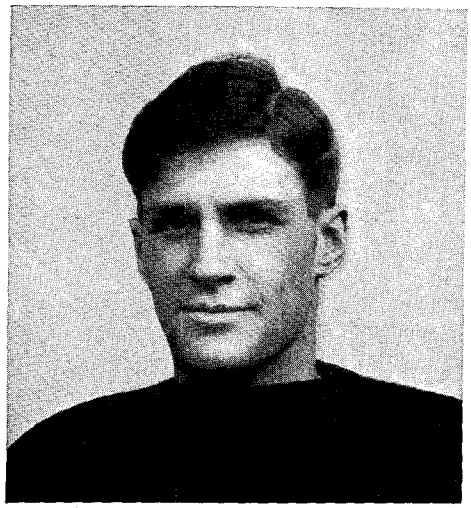
CAPTAIN KETCHAM
Yale University



CAPTAIN TANDBERG
University of Wisconsin

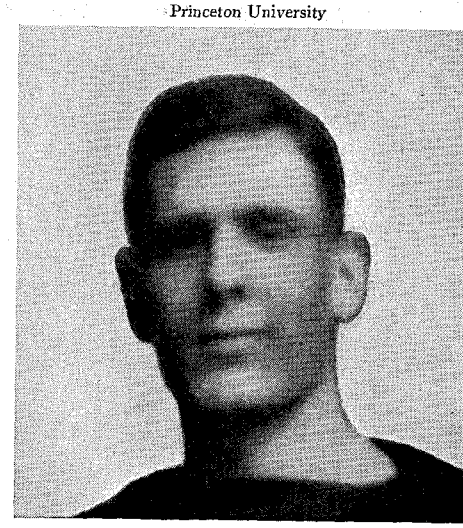


CAPTAIN BAKER
Princeton University



PHOTOGRAPH BY G. V. BUCK, WASHINGTON, D. C.

CAPTAIN GILCHRIST
United States Naval Academy



CAPTAIN HOGE
United States Military Academy

THE SEASON'S LEADERS IN FOOTBALL

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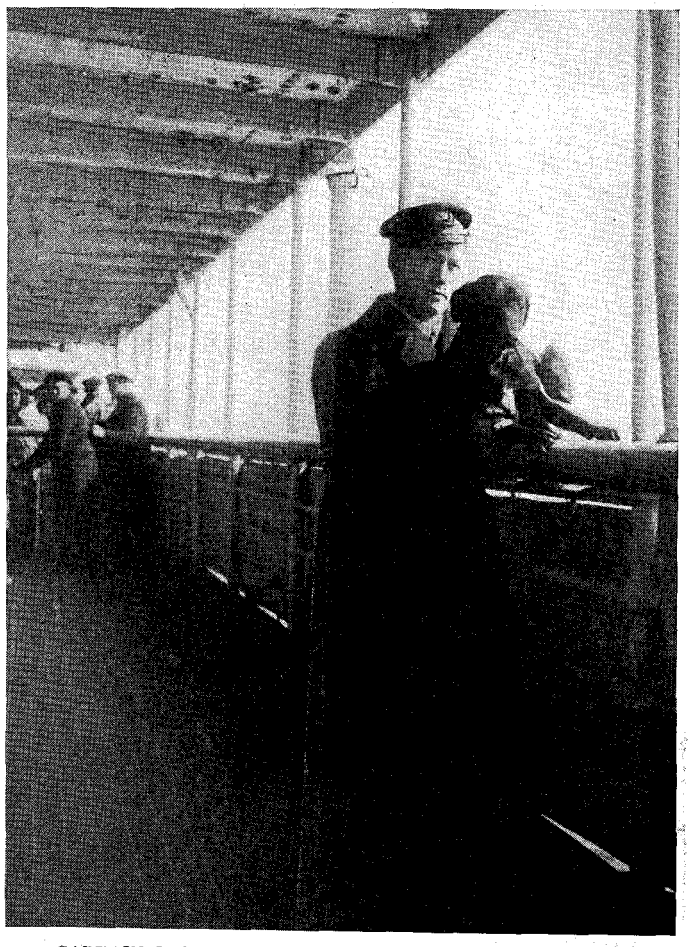

CAPTAIN INCH OF THE VOLTURNO AND HIS DOG JACK

TWO WAIFS FROM THE VOLTURNO

THE VOLTURNO DISASTER

These pictures were taken by a passenger on the Volturno and are printed here for the first time. An account of the burning at sea of the Volturno appeared in last week's Outlook

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PHOTOGRAPH BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

THE EPISCOPAL HOUSE OF BISHOPS IN SESSION IN NEW YORK CITY

An account of recent sessions of the Episcopal Convention appears on another page

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CALIFORNIA AND THE JAPANESE[1]

I—AN EXISTING MENACE

BY JOHN T. BRAMHALL

THE last word has not been spoken upon the question of the Japanese in America, and will not be spoken, I greatly fear, until it is backed by argument more potent than words. The matter is not a local one with California. It is not a question, as Mr. Mabie appears to think, of international courtesy, or the failure to understand the feelings and temperament of the Nipponese (see The Outlook of August 2). Nor is it a mere labor difficulty in California. In whatever way the discussion originated, it is now a vital question for the white race to decide whether the brown, the yellow, and even the black shall have equal privileges with the white. "The ultimate point of dispute," says Sir Valentine Chirol, formerly foreign editor of the London "Times," "does not affect the United States alone, still less California. It is a world question essentially. . . . No useful purpose can be served by blind condemnation of the tendencies of public opinion in Western States. They do not spring so much from race hatred as from the instinct of self-preservation; and if the present minor dispute is composed they will assuredly recur."

Neither is it a claim that can be adjudicated upon interpretation of treaties, statutes, or precedents, much less upon prospects of trade or of foreign missions. It is a question, if not of the supremacy of race, at least of the integrity and independence of race. Caucasians have confidently believed that they were the dominant people of the earth, to whom in time all others must bow; but we must admit that the vast majority of the world's people hold other opinions. It is not remarkable that Japanese statesmen and scholars hold exalted ideas upon the ultimate destiny of their people; but if these sentiments conflict, are we to abandon our own views, and our own traditions and institutions, and our land?

In view of the repeated denials of emergency and the probable revival of the Land Bill agitation through the persistent opposition of the Japanese, it may be proper to offer some evidence to show that a menace exists; and I will offer it, not in a spirit of offense, but of defense.

First, note that of the 191,900 population of Hawaii by the last Census, 79,675, or 41.5 per cent, are Japanese, and all Orientals number 105,882, or 55.2 per cent. From 1900 to 1910 the Japanese increased 52.8 per cent. Hawaii is a stepping-stone in the path from Asia to America. As to the number of Japanese in California, it is needless to count noses, for, while they may not be numerous in the mountains and the waste places, they flock like bees in the fruit and vegetable country, which we have tried to settle with Eastern men. Certain sections in the deciduous fruit belt, the Tokay grape, strawberry, apple, and truck country are so Japanized that they have ceased to be American communities. The area of the land controlled, while insignificant compared to the entire area of the State, counting, as some theorists do, the desert and mountain land into the total, amounted two years ago to upwards of 12,000 acres in fee and over 80,000 acres in the finest agricultural districts of the State. Considering how restricted this area is, one might imagine, for comparison, similar inroads in the State of New York, for example. Imagine your polling lists in your best farming districts depleted of white voters (though eventually to be filled with brown), and your school rolls similarly diminished, and tell me whether there is a social danger or not.

The question that must now be decided is whether the Alien Land Law shall be made still more effective in its terms, or the position taken abandoned altogether.

The racial instinct, be it right or wrong, lies deeply imbedded in human nature and is strengthened by religion. The traditions of all people begin with the creation of man and the allotment of land. Crowded, starving Asia, with her nine or ten hundred million people, looks hungrily across the Pacific to America, with its one hundred millions and fields of corn. Steam has narrowed

[1] See in connection with these articles an editorial, "The Controversy with Japan," in this issue.

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the ocean to a strait, and the vanguard has already crossed. The Japanese brought the strongest military empire of Europe to her knees. Can we not read the writing on the wall?

Sacramento, California.

II—PEACE, NOT ANTAGONISM

BY HAMILTON W. MABIE

Mr. Bramhall is right: the "question of the Japanese in America" is not a "local one with California;" one chief objection to the land legislation of last spring is that it was a local treatment of a National question. It is also certain that the spirit in which the American shall treat the man of the Far East is a vital question. Whether, so far as the American is concerned, civilization is a failure or not depends on whether a civilized code of international intercourse is enforced by this country, or whether the old-time semi-barbaric race antagonisms shall be permitted to dictate American policy with half the world now on the way to recover the civilization which that half first developed for itself and then passed on to the Western races. Whether the Caucasian is "played out" or not remains to be seen. If he shuts his eyes to the duties and responsibilities of modern civilization, he certainly is "played out." He has acted so long on the assumption that his is the dominant race, "to whom in time all others must bow," that he has come to believe that his supremacy is part of the permanent order of things. So far that supremacy has rested largely on force. In the future that race will hold the primacy among the races which develops the highest civilization. It is much too early to predict which race that will be. The West has a long lead in some respects, for the East has been asleep; but it is by no means certain that the West will keep that lead. In the more civilized age upon which we have entered, those races which practice justice, pursue peace, and develop the human spirit most harmoniously will lead the world, and ought to lead it, whether they are light like the Scandinavians or dark like the Spaniards and Italians, or yellow like the Chinese, or brown like the Japanese, or of many shades like the Americans. The next two or three hundred years will show great changes. It may then appear, and many of us hope and believe that it will appear, that the primacy will go, not to the most successful race in point of business ability, nor to the most powerful race in arms and armaments, but to the race that does most to make the world a home rather than a workshop, and to create an international spirit and practice of co-operation.

It cannot be said too often nor too emphatically that no intelligent American wants another race problem; that those who regard the California land legislation as unwise, unfair, and un-American do not believe in unrestricted immigration from Japan. On the contrary, most of the critics of the California legislation believe in rigid regulation of immigration. The Government of Japan restricts immigration into that country, and rigidly enforces the agreement to restrict it with this country. There is not, and there cannot be, a "wave of Asiatic immigration," because the gates are already locked and bolted. If necessary, they may be locked and bolted more securely, but let it be done by agreement between the two governments, with due regard for those courtesies which are not idle forms but the practice of civilized societies; and let us ask no restriction of Japan which we are not willing to have Japan apply to us.

The very soul of civilization is that respect of man for man and of nation for nation the lack of which made it impossible for barbarian peoples to follow any occupation but that of fighting.

There are, roughly speaking, one hundred and fifty-eight thousand square miles of land in California, of which Japanese control about twenty square miles! Of course many land-holding companies have been recently incorporated in California; not, however, to nullify the law but in accordance with its provisions. Such companies, incorporated before the law went into effect, are empowered to hold land for fifty years. The Attorney-General is reported as saying that under the law Japanese landowners are "permitted to hold it during their lives. By forming corporations they merely extended their time of ownership." The action of the Japanese landowners appears, therefore, to have been strictly within their legal rights and precisely what Americans would have done under sim-

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ilar circumstances. It is true that the small-fruit industries of the State are largely carried on by the Japanese; it may be said that they are dependent on the Japanese, for they appear to be the only laborers who can, or will, do the work.

But the chief concern of the Nation is the spirit with which it is to characterize its dealings with half the world. Questions of immigration can be easily arranged; those "Asiatic hordes" which are so terrifying to the imagination cannot come even if they wish to come; and the "control of the Pacific" is only a rhetorical possibility; the fleets of England and Germany combined would be lost in its vast expanse. But there is an issue in the Far East which transcends all local fears and all policies for the near future. What is at stake is not the needs of this or that section or the supremacy of the Caucasian; it is the issue between peace and co-operation of the two halves of the globe or their antagonism and destructive competition. The way to disarm those "Asiatic hordes" so that they will not overrun Europe and America is to make them our friends by practicing toward them the justice which we demand for ourselves, the courtesy which we may hope to learn from them, and those Christian principles which we preach to them but do not always practice in our dealings with them.

III—TWO ASPECTS OF THE JAPANESE PROBLEM

BY WALTER V. WOEHLKE

"California, it would seem from this article, deliberately proposes a policy of welcome for inefficiency, ignorance, and anarchy, and of exclusion for the intelligence, orderliness, and skill which stand waiting at her doors," says Dr. Francis G. Peabody in The Outlook of August 2, referring to an analysis of the Pacific Coast race problem in my article in The Outlook of May 10 last. This analysis apparently left Dr. Peabody under the impression that California objects to Japanese immigrants, not because they are Asiatics, not because they are of a race differing radically from the dominant strain, but because they are proud, able, ambitious, sensitive, and intelligent.

In setting down my opinion concerning the causes underlying the constant friction between the relatively small number of Japanese resident in California and the mass of the white population I assumed that the attitude of the Pacific Coast to the problem of Asiatic immigration in its entirety was too well known and understood to need reiteration. The quotation from Dr. Peabody's article shows that, seemingly, this attitude is widely misunderstood.

In the Chinese immigrant California has always had a laborer who was intelligent, skilled, industrious, thrifty, submissive, and pliant. An inexhaustible supply of this, from the employer's standpoint almost an ideal supply of cheap labor, has been at the State's disposal since it joined the Union. It came of its own accord, did not have to be carried across the sea in slave-ships. Yet California agitated for thirty years, demanded vehemently and insistently that the Federal Government handle this problem, ninety-eight per cent National, and keep the Chinese out. At the same time California was more hospitable toward the Mediterranean immigrant than any other State in the Union.

For thirty years after the close of the Civil War the ubiquitous John Chinaman performed practically all of California's manual, menial tasks. There were nearly a hundred thousand of him in the State, which during the larger part of this period had less than a million inhabitants. The yellow man occupied the same niche in California that the Negro fills in the South. The consequences were identical. Labor lost its dignity. The youth of California grew up to despise work, to look down upon the worker. Wherever the yellow coolie appeared the white worker left. To this day white cooks or waiters will not work alongside of Chinese. Except those tasks which required the handling of stock, the Chinese practically monopolized farm work. To this yellow period in the career of the State can be traced its present-day attitude toward the farm "hand." The Middle Western farmer seats the hired man at the family table; the Californian rancher, unconsciously harking back to the feudal ways of the yellow period, treats the farm "hand" as an outcast, as a pariah, refuses to take him under his roof, forces him to carry his bedding, usually assigns him to

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quarters barely fit for cattle. Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Hindu farm labor habitually maintains its own camps, sets its own table.

If the Chinese of California had, as the Japanese are doing to-day, taken root, sent to Asia for wives, had started to breed children with Asiatic fecundity, the problem of race antagonism in California would to-day be more acute than the Negro problem in Mississippi. A peculiarity of the Chinese character saved California from this fate after California had for a full generation appealed to the Nation for redress.

"The attitude of the South to the Negro practically prohibits the immigration of free men," writes Dr. Peabody. "The same result would seem probable if the Mississippi view of citizenship were applied in California. Self-respecting immigrants would be likely to shun a State where none but serfs were wanted." That is precisely the reason actuating the thinking, enlightened Californians in their demand for the exclusion of all non-white Asiatic immigrants. Self-respecting white immigrants will not come where colored labor predominates. And California whole-heartedly, without reservation, welcomes white settlers.

After admitting all the good qualities of Japanese laborers, the fact remains that they are not, cannot be, never will be, an integral part of a homogeneous white commonwealth. And the further fact remains that the Japanese can, and will, displace white labor whenever they are so minded, not by superior ability, intelligence, or skill, but by the simple expedient of underliving, underbidding Caucasian workers. Were it necessary, numerous instances of this practice could be cited. Furthermore, an open-door policy would at once and automatically depress the price of Asiatic labor, and with this sinking price would sink the present high standard of living among both Japanese and Chinese; it would drop below the lowest level of Caucasian workers, and still be higher than Asiatic standards.

There are two aspects to the Japanese problem in California. One has to do with the broad question created by the presence of colored races in regions claimed by the white man. This wide question—once decided when the Nation excluded the Chinese as undesirable, decided a second time when the Nation obtained Japan's reluctant promise to restrict and regulate emigration—furnishes the background for the second aspect of the problem. Against this historic background arises the question, What shall California do with the Japanese residents within its borders?

Like the Negro in the South, the Japanese are a disturbing element. Their presence creates friction. It was a discussion of the cause of this continued friction that called forth Dr. Peabody's criticism. If, in the course of this analysis, it was found that the superior ability and aggressiveness of the Japanese, their successful racial team work, had aroused the envy and hatred of certain classes; if it was shown that the national poise and dignity, the sensitive pride, the lack of humor among the Japanese, had created resentment in the easy-going, back-slapping West; if these facts were cited to shed light upon the psychology of California's attitude to immigrants of color, it is not fair to extend the deductions to cover the entire field of immigration. By its persistent, unrelenting attempts to exclude all colored races from its soil California has proved that it is not actuated by ignoble motives. Chinese immigrants were serfs within Dr. Peabody's meaning, yet California alone brought about their exclusion. But for this action on California's part the entire Pacific Coast would be more Asiatic than is Hawaii; white immigrants would give it a wide berth, just as they avoid the South.

A Californian of Italian descent is Commissioner of Immigration; from the State Supreme Court and the State Senate down the sons of Italian immigrants occupy elective positions of honor and great importance in California; Armenian, Russian, Italian, Greek, and Portuguese agricultural colonies flourish throughout the State; in the financial and commercial life of the Commonwealth the immigrant and his offspring are most important factors. Because California wants more of these white immigrants it is trying to keep down the barriers across the highway from eastern Asia.

As The Outlook has repeatedly and with foresight urged, it is time for the Federal Government to bring about a speedy, definite settlement of a problem which is ninety-eight per cent National. The present uncertainty concerning the status of the Japanese in California is a constant source of potential trouble. Nor will it dry up until the two countries have mutually agreed, by formal treaty, to bar immigrant labor from their respective borders.

Pasadena, California

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A HEART FOR EVERY FATE

BY GEORGE KENNAN

NOW and then the orbit of almost every human life is crossed by a character whose fortitude in suffering and indomitable courage in adversity put to shame the weakness of the faint-hearted, raise the standards of the dauntless, and compel even the cynic and pessimist to admit that man, at his best, is bigger than anything that can happen to him. Such a character came into my life when I made the acquaintance of the Russian poet Felix Volkhovsky. His story, as I finally came to know it, was a tragic but stirring narrative of brave and generous endeavor, thwarted and frustrated by despotic repression.

He was born in 1847, in the south of Russia, where his parents had an estate; and he spent all the earlier years of his life at home. The sympathy with the Russian peasants and the desire to improve their condition that were so characteristic of his manhood found expression in his attitude toward them even as a child. When he was only seven years of age, he happened to see a serf flogged on his father's estate; and this first experience of what seemed to him shocking cruelty and injustice so aroused and excited him that he rushed into the house with tear-filled eyes, doubled up his little fists, and attacked furiously his cold and austere grandfather—the first man of the family that he chanced to come across. For this outburst of indignation and disrespect he was promptly punished; but the incident made a deep impression upon his childish mind, and first led him to think about the social and political conditions that authorized and empowered one man to have another man mercilessly flogged with a whip. As the twig is bent the tree is inclined; and the direction given to the boy's thoughts by the flogging of a serf determined, in large part, his future career, and made him, eventually, a reformer, a member of the party of "The People's Will," and a revolutionist.

In 1865 or 1866 he entered the Moscow University, and two or three years later joined Herman Lopatin, a fellow-student, in an attempt to raise money for the purpose of sending teachers and books to the peasants in the agricultural villages. In this work there was nothing illegal, because the serfs had just been emancipated, and the Government professed an intention to have them educated. The administration, however, and especially the police, regarded with suspicion every attempt to enlighten the common people that had not been officially authorized and sanctioned; and in 1868, at the age of twenty-one, Volkhovsky was arrested upon the charge of exciting discontent among the peasants by furnishing them with literature of a "pernicious character." He was imprisoned at first in Moscow; but two or three weeks later he was taken to St. Petersburg and thrown into the fortress of Petropavlovsk. In one of the dark and sepulchral casemates of that great political prison he spent eight months. He was then tried by a special commission, was found to be innocent, and was acquitted. Returning to the south of Russia, he settled in Odessa, and was shortly afterward married to Miss Antonova, of that city, a young woman of character and education, who sympathized with his views and aims, and who herself belonged to the class described by the Government as "politically untrustworthy." The domestic happiness of the young couple, however, was of short duration. Volkhovsky himself continued to correspond with his friend and comrade Lopatin; the latter, who had been exiled to the Caucasus, happened to exchange a few letters with a revolutionary conspirator named Nechaief; and in 1869, when Nechaief organized the society known as "Obshchestvo Narodnoi Raspravy" (Retributive Justice of the People), Volkhovsky and Lopatin were both arrested, merely because intercepted letters showed that one of the three had been in correspondence with the other two. Lopatin succeeded in escaping from his guards, and Nechaief, the real conspirator, fled to western Europe; but Volkhovsky, merely because he had been in correspondence with a man who had exchanged letters with Nechaief, was taken to St. Petersburg and again thrown into the fortress of Petropavlovsk.

Solitary confinement in a fortress is not regarded by the Russian Government as the severest of its non-capital punishments; but all political offenders who have experienced it agree that, when it is prolonged beyond a

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year or two, it is far more injurious to mind and body than the hard labor of penal servitude. A hard-labor convict in the mines has occupation, sees the outside world at least twice a day, and associates with companions in misery who are at least human beings; but a prisoner in one of the casemates of the Petropavlovsk fortress has nothing to do but pace his cell, sees nothing but the damp walls that inclose him, and meets no one but the silent guards who bring him his food or watch him furtively through the narrow "Judas" slit in the heavy door. The stillness is that of the grave. There is not a footstep, nor a voice, nor a sound of any kind to indicate the presence of another human being in the bastion. Every fifteen minutes the bells of the fortress cathedral chime out slowly the air with which the words "Have mercy, O Lord!" are associated in the Russian liturgy, and every hour they ring the melody of the ecclesiastical chant "How glorious is our Lord in Zion." The damp, heavy atmosphere, the dripping walls, the oppressive silence, and the faint muffled tones of the cathedral bells chiming mournful airs from the church liturgy, all seem to say to the lonely and dejected prisoner, "Although not dead, you are buried." Few men are strong enough to bear, without serious impairment of bodily vigor, such complete isolation from the world of the living and such entire deprivation of the absolute necessities of intellectual life. Many prisoners have gone insane in these gloomy casemates, and many more have come out of them with shattered health and broken characters. Volkhovsky, however, was a young and vigorous man, of dauntless courage and invincible fortitude, and he lived through two years and a half of isolation and loneliness without wholly losing hope or strength. His health failed, but he was sustained to the last by an indomitable spirit. In 1871 he was tried in the St. Petersburg Chamber of Justice, with Vladimir I. Kovalevski (afterward Associate Minister of Finance) and eighty-five other prisoners, on the charge of conspiring with Nechaief to overthrow the existing form of government. Volkhovsky and Kovalevsky were able to show that they had had no relations whatever with Nechaief, and both were set at liberty. Volkhovsky at that time was only twenty-four years of age. He had been twice tried for political crime and twice acquitted, but his blameless record had not saved him from three years of isolation in the gloom and solitude of a bomb-proof casemate. As soon as he was released he joined his wife, returned with her to Odessa, engaged in business there, and established a home.

It was practically impossible for a young man of Volkhovsky's temperament and ideals to regard with indifference the great movement for the enlightenment and elevation of the peasants which began in Russia in 1871, and which first took definite and practical form in the impulsive, generous, but quixotic crusade known as "going to the people." Volkhovsky was soon drawn into this movement, and in 1873 he organized in Odessa a "circle" for the promotion of popular enlightenment, which was affiliated with the famous circle of Tchaykovsky in St. Petersburg. These "circles," of course, did not escape the vigilant attention of the Government. They were regarded as seditious in their character, and steps were at once taken to put a stop to what was believed to be nothing less than a secret revolutionary propaganda.

In 1874 Volkhovsky was arrested for the third time, and taken to Moscow, where he was confined temporarily in one of the detention cells of the gendarmerie. Fearing that her husband would not survive another long term of fortress imprisonment, Mrs. Volkhovsky, with the aid of Vsovolod Lopatin—brother of Herman Lopatin—made a daring attempt to set him free while he was being taken through the streets from the gendarmerie to the Moscow Central Prison. A handful of snuff was thrown into the face of the gendarme officer who had him in charge, and Volkhovsky, availing himself promptly of his guard's temporary blindness, attempted to spring into a droshky that his wife had in waiting. Just as he reached it the vehicle started ahead at full speed, and the sudden jerk caused him to miss his footing. His wife seized his arm and tried to draw him into the sleigh; but she was not strong enough to hold him. As he fell, he grasped one of the uprights of the runner and clung desperately to that; but after being dragged seventy-five or a hundred feet through the snow he lost his hold, and two or three street policemen sprang upon him before he could recover himself. Lopatin attempted to rescue him, but both were eventually overpowered. Volkhovsky and his wife never saw each other again. She broke down completely under the strain of disappointment, anxiety, and grief; was forced to leave Russia in order to escape

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arrest; and eventually went to Italy, where she hoped that she might regain her health and strength. Life, however, had been too hard for her, and she died in Sicily, of a broken heart, just after her husband had been exiled to Siberia.

Volkhovsky and Lopatin were taken to St. Petersburg, where they were thrown into the fortress of Petropavlovsk to await trial. Then began for Volkhovsky another long term of solitary confinement, which proved to be even more rigorous and severe than the preceding term. His casemate cell was gloomy and damp, and as month after month and year after year passed, he not only began to suffer from rheumatism and anæmia, but became so deaf that he could no longer communicate with his fellow-prisoners by means of the knock-alphabet, and could hear no more the bells of the fortress cathedral chiming at the quarter-hours, "Have mercy, O Lord!" and at midnight, "God Save the Czar!"

The calamity that Volkhovsky feared most was impairment of his mental faculties —or complete loss of reason—from lack of occupation. A prisoner in such circumstances is likely to "lose his grip," and to sink into mind-destroying melancholia, as the result of brooding incessantly over his own misfortunes. Volkhovsky, as an intelligent and resolute man, determined to combat this tendency by every means in his power. He avoided, as far as possible, reflection and retrospection, and kept his mind active by forcing it into exercise upon subjects not connected with his life. He went over all that he could remember of Russian history; arranged the facts in chronological order; and then put them into the best possible rhythmical form, so as to make a sort of national epic. In this way he composed a poetical history of Russia, in three or four hundred stanzas, and committed it to memory. He then thought out and memorized thousands of lines of doggerel poetry upon all sorts of subjects suggested to him by his experience or his imagination. When I met him ten years later, he could still repeat hundreds of these verses, which had little or no value as poetry, but which were interesting on account of the circumstances that brought them into existence.

Volkhovsky's third term of imprisonment lasted three years. On the 30th of October, 1877, he was arraigned before a special session of the Governing Senate convened to try one hundred and ninety-three political offenders (including Volkhovsky) upon the charge of "organizing an illegal society for the purpose of bringing about, in the near or remote future, the overthrow of the present form of government and a change in the existing methods of administration."

At the very beginning of the proceedings the prisoner asked that they be tried together and not in segregated groups; that they be allowed to have their own stenographer; and that the case be heard, with open doors, in a room large enough to accommodate a fair representation of the public. The court ruled that these requests were inadmissible. Most of the accused thereupon declined to plead, or to make any defense; and some of them protested so vehemently, and with so much intemperance of language, against the ruling of the presiding judge (Senator Peters) that they were forcibly removed from the court-room. The fiery orator Muishkin, before he was seized and choked into submission by the guards, shouted passionately: "This court is worse than a house of ill fame. There women prostitute themselves from necessity; but here Senators sell their honor, prostitute justice, and sacrifice the lives of others, for the sake of rank and reward."[1]

When Volkhovsky was called upon to plead, he rose in the dense throng of prisoners, and, addressing the presiding judge respectfully, said: "Will not your High Excellency allow me to come and stand directly in front of the bench? I am partially deaf, and I cannot hear, at this distance, the questions that may be put to me." As Volkhovsky was almost the first of the accused to address the court with the forms of courtesy, the presiding judge treated him with exceptional consideration and immediately granted his request. When asked for his name and plea, Volkhovsky said:

"Your High Excellency and Senators: My name is Felix Vadimovitch Volkhovsky. I am only thirty years of age. I have spent six years in solitary confinement in a casemate of the fortress. My hair is turning gray; I am partially deaf; I have almost forgotten how to talk; and my wife is dying alone in Sicily."

Here Volkhovsky's feeble voice broke a little, and he seemed to totter on his feet, as if he were about to fall. The presiding

[1] Muishkin's speech is given in full in Bazilevsky's "Political Crime in Russia," Vol. III, p. 296.

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judge ordered that a chair and a glass of water be brought to him. Volkhovsky drank a little of the water, but declined to take the seat. After a moment he recovered himself, and in a stronger voice and with bolder demeanor said: "Notwithstanding all these circumstances, which are perhaps of a purely personal nature, I should play a cowardly part, and should be false to my convictions and unfaithful to the people whom I have tried to help, if I did not join my comrades in protesting against a ruling which denies us a public trial, segregates us in groups, prevents us from hearing one another's statements, and deprives us of the most important of our legal rights. I refuse to take any part in such a trial, and I decline to plead. I will not give expression to my feeling for this court, but it is anything you like except respect."[1]

At this point Volkhovsky was stopped by the presiding judge and was ordered to take his seat. Not wishing to be subjected to personal violence, he obeyed.

It is not necessary, so far as the story of Volkhovsky's life is concerned, to give an extended account of the famous "Trial of the 193." It lasted from the 30th of October, 1877, to the 4th of February, 1878, and ended in the acquittal of ninety of the prisoners and the condemnation of one hundred and three. Of the latter, four were sentenced to penal servitude for life; twenty-five to incarceration in fortresses, with or without hard labor; and seventy-four to confinement in prisons of the ordinary type, or to exile in Siberia for terms ranging from eighteen months to life. In the class last named was Volkhovsky; who, about the time of his wife's death in Sicily, was sentenced to lifelong banishment in the West Siberian province of Tobolsk. The place of residence assigned to him was Tiukalinsk, a small provincial town of four or five hundred log houses, which at that time had a population of perhaps three thousand. There he lived, under police surveillance, for five years; supporting himself by house-painting, sign-painting, bookbinding, and other handicrafts, which he was compelled to learn. In Tiukalinsk his aged mother, who had gone with him into exile, died; and there, two or three years later, he married again. His second wife, Alexandra Sergeyevna Volkhovskaya, had also been exiled for political reasons, and was living in Siberia alone.

In 1883 Volkhovsky was transferred to the city of Tomsk, and there I met him, in the course of the trip that I made to Siberia for the purpose of investigating the exile system. He was then thirty-eight years of age, and was a man of cultivated mind, warm heart, and high aspirations. He knew English well, was familiar with American history and literature, and had translated into Russian many of the poems of Longfellow. He spoke to me with great admiration, I remember, of Longfellow's "Arsenal at Springfield," and recited it to me aloud. He seemed to me one of the most winning and lovable men that it had ever been my good fortune to know; but one could not look at him without seeing that his life had been full of tragedy and suffering. His health had been shattered by long imprisonment in the fortress of Petropavlovsk; his hair was prematurely gray; and when his face was in repose there seemed to be an expression of profound melancholy in his dark-brown eyes. I became intimately acquainted with him and very warmly attached to him, and when, after two weeks of daily association with him, I bade him good-by, he threw his arms around me impulsively and said, "George Ivanovitch, please don't forget us! In bidding you good-by I feel as if something were going out of my life that would never again come into it." At that time, however, I thought that the worst of his misfortunes were probably over. He had congenial, if not very profitable, employment on the editorial staff of the "Siberian Gazette;" his wife, whom I remember as a pale, delicate, sad-faced woman twenty-five or thirty years of age, seemed devotedly attached to him; they had three pretty children; and I could see no reason why they might not reasonably hope to spend the remainder of their lives in comparative peace and happiness.

But Fate never spared Volkhovsky long. A little more than a year after my return to the United States he wrote me a profoundly sad and touching letter in which he informed me of the death of his wife by suicide. He himself had been thrown out of employment by the suppression of the liberal Tomsk newspaper, the "Siberian Gazette," and his wife had tried to help him support their family of young children by giving private lessons and taking in sewing. Anxiety and over-

[1] Volkhovsky's speech is summarized in Bazilevsky's "Political Crime in Russia" (Paris, 1895), Vol. III, "The Trial of the 193," pp. 274-276. The more personal part, here given, is from the recollection of one of his comrades.

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work had finally broken down her health; she had become an invalid, and, in a morbid state of mind brought on by unhappiness and disease, she reasoned herself into the belief that she was an encumbrance rather than a help to her husband and her children, and that they would ultimately be better off if she were dead. On the 7th of December, 1877, she put an end to her unhappy life by shooting herself through the head with a pistol. Her husband was devotedly attached to her, and her death, under such circumstances and in such a way, was a terrible blow to him. In his letter to me he referred to a copy of James Russell Lowell's poems that I had caused to be sent to him, and said that in reading "After the Burial" he vividly realized, for the first time, that the lines, although written by a bereaved American, expressed the deepest thoughts and feelings of a bereaved Russian.

By means of secret prearranged addresses in Russia and in the United States, I succeeded in maintaining a desultory and precarious correspondence with Volkhovsky until 1889. In the spring of that year I received from him two short letters filled with tidings of misfortune, and then—nothing more. The two letters were, in part, as follows:

Tomsk, February 14, 1889.

I write you a few lines to tell you how weary I am of waiting for a letter from you! You have probably heard before this time of the final suppression of the "Siberian Gazette." It is hard and it is shameful! You need not hesitate any longer to write whatever you like about it for publication. You will not injure the paper because there is no hope of its resurrection.

My youngest daughter is still sick and has grown so thin that it is painful to look at her. She sleeps badly, and often I have to be up all night taking care of her. This, together with constant fear for her life, disorders my nerves terribly, and undermines what health I have left. I am greatly disheartened, too, by loneliness, notwithstanding my children and my friends. The affectionate tenderness of a beloved wife is a thing that some natures find it difficult to do without, no matter what else they may have. It is very hard, sometimes, my dear fellow, to live in this world!

Since it became apparent that I should no longer be able to support myself by newspaper work (on account of the suppression of the "Siberian Gazette") I have been looking for other occupation; but, unfortunately, the present governor is expelling political exiles from all public positions, and even debarring them, to some extent, from private employment, by showing such hostility to them that private individuals dare not give them work for fear of getting into trouble. I do not know how it will all end. I have sent four manuscripts to St. Petersburg, but none of them has been published. With most cordial remembrances to your wife, I am, Yours, FELIX.

Irkutsk, Eastern Siberia, May 7, 1889.

How long it is since I last received a letter from you, and how much I have needed your letters! They bring to me all the mental refreshment and all the gladness that life has for me, and at times I am sorely in need of them. Fate has dealt me another blow. My youngest daughter, Katie, died a month or two since of pneumonia. She had an attack of bronchitis winter before last which developed into chronic inflammation of the lungs; but in the spring of 1888 I took her into the country, where she grew better and began to run about and play. Unfortunately, however, she was exposed there to whooping-cough, took the infection, and it ended in acute pneumonia and death. She was about three years old, and such a dear, lovable child! But whose child is not dear and lovable? At any rate— No, I can't write any more about it. This is the second time within a few days that I have tried to write you of her—but I cannot—it hurts too much! As long as I am busy, and can talk or write of other things, it seems as if the wound were healed; but let my thoughts once go to her, and I feel such grief and pain that I don't know what to do with myself.

I must explain to you how I happen to be in Irkutsk. It is a very simple story. Thanks to the recommendation of some of my Irkutsk friends, I was offered here a place that was suited to my tastes and abilities, and I hastened to migrate.[1] My warmest regards to your wife. Write me. Affectionately,

FELIX.

After the receipt of the above letters I wrote Volkhovsky twice; but I heard from him no more, and did not know, until long afterward, what happened to him. When his last letter was written he was living with his little daughter Vera in Irkutsk, and was trying, by means of hard work, to lighten the sense of loneliness and bereavement that he had felt since the death of his wife, his daughter Katie, and his baby boy. Hardly had life begun to seem more bearable when there came upon him a new misfortune in the shape of an order from the Governor-General directing the private bank where he was employed to dismiss him. He had committed no new offense, and there was no reason, so far as he was aware, for this arbitrary and imperative order; but Governor-General

[1] When political offenders sentenced merely to banishment have been ten years in exile, and have behaved during that time in a manner satisfactory to the authorities, it is customary to give them more freedom of movement. They are still kept under police surveillance, but are allowed to go anywhere within the limits of certain provinces. After sixteen years of imprisonment and exile, Volkhovsky received a ticket of leave which is colloquially known in the exile world as "a wolf's passport."—G. K.

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Ignatief seemed to be of opinion that the employment of a political exile in a bank was "prejudicial to public order," and Volkhovsky had to resign. The bank made him a present of two hundred dollars, as an evidence of its sympathy and regard, and, leaving his little daughter Vera with friends in Irkutsk, he proceeded to Troitskosavsk, a small town on the frontier of Mongolia, where one of his fellow-prisoners in the trial of the 193 had for some time been living. The police there, however, had been apprised of his dismissal from the Irkutsk bank by order of the Governor-General, and, assuming of course that he must be a dangerous or troublesome man, they made life so uncomfortable for him that he finally resolved to abandon, temporarily, his daughter Vera, whom he had left in Irkutsk, and make his escape, if possible, to the United States, by way of the Pacific Ocean. He had the money given to him by the bank, and a little more derived from the sale of a small volume of poems that he had published before leaving Tomsk;[1] and if his small capital should be exhausted before he reached his destination he determined to work as a stevedore, or a common laborer of some sort, until he should earn enough to go on. His objective point was the city of Washington, where he expected to find me. The nearest seaport on the Pacific where he could hope to get on board a foreign steamer was Vladivostok, about twenty-six hundred miles away. The distance to be traversed, under the eyes of a suspicious and hostile police, was immense; but Volkhovsky was cautious, prudent, and experienced, and, assuming the dress ordinarily worn by retired army officers, he set out, with "free horses," for the head-waters of the Amur River, where he expected to get a steamer.

I cannot go into the details of his difficult and perilous journey from Troitskosavsk to Stretinsk, from Stretinsk by steamer down the Amur to Khabarofka, and from Khabarofka up the Usuri and across Lake Khanka to Vladivostok. It was a journey full of adventures and narrow escapes, and nothing but the coolness, courage, and good fortune of the fugitive carried him through in safety. For the first time in this story of Volkhovsky's life I have used the words "good fortune." It came to him at last. The French have a proverb which declares, "*Qui ne se lasse pas lasse l'adversitie*" (He who does not tire tires adversity). In more than seventeen years of imprisonment and exile Volkhovsky had never lost his grip or acknowledged himself beaten, and Fate at last relented. From the moment when he resolved to escape, everything that happened to him proved to be advantageous.

There were four foreign steamers in the port of Vladivostok when he arrived there, and one of them, a coal steamer, was flying the flag of Great Britain. Volkhovsky went on board, ascertained that the steamer was bound for Japan, and asked the captain if he would take a passenger who had neither passport nor official permission to leave the Empire. The captain hesitated at first, but when Volkhovsky related his story, said that he was able and willing to pay for his passage, and exhibited my photograph and letters as proofs of his trustworthiness, the captain consented to take him. A hiding-place was soon found for him, and when the Russian officials came on board to clear the vessel he was nowhere to be seen. A few hours later the steamer was at sea, and the escaping political exile, as he stood on the upper deck and watched the slow fading of the Siberian coast in the west, drew a long, deep breath of relief, and turned his face with reviving hope toward the land where a personal opinion concerning human affairs is not regarded as "prejudicial to public order," and where a man who tries to make the world better and happier is not punished with six years of solitary confinement, eleven years of exile, and the loss of more than half his family.

The destination of the coal steamer was Nagasaki; and when Volkhovsky arrived there he happened, by the sheerest accident, to get into a hotel kept by a Russian. The proprietor, from the very first, seemed to regard him with suspicion, and asked so many searching personal questions that Volkhovsky became alarmed. Japan at that time surrendered escaping exiles from Siberia, and there was a Russian man-of-war in the harbor. In this emergency, expecting every hour to be arrested by the Japanese police, the fugitive went for advice and aid to the American consulate. The consul listened to his story, read two or three of my letters, looked him over critically, and then said: "It is not the duty of an American consul to assist political exiles in escaping from Siberia; but your case appeals to me, and I will do what I can for you. If you

[1] "Siberian Echoes," by Ivan Brut (a pen-name). Mikhaelof & Makushin, Tomsk.

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are arrested, say that you are an American citizen and send for me."

"But," objected Volkhovsky, "how can I say that I am an American citizen when I speak English so badly? They'll see at once that I'm a foreigner."

"That doesn't make any difference," replied the consul. "We've got lots of citizens in the States who speak English worse than you do. Whatever happens, send for me. I'll explain your English. Meanwhile I'll go back to your hotel with you, and to-morrow morning I'll call for you to take a walk. You're an intimate friend of mine—see?"

By making opportunities to show himself publicly in the company of the fugitive, the consul allayed the suspicions of the hotel proprietor and the Russian naval officers, and two or three days later Volkhovsky left Nagasaki for Yokohama.

After having paid his steamer fare from Vladivostok to Nagasaki, and from Nagasaki to Yokohama, Volkhovsky found himself in the latter place with hardly money enough to get across the Pacific, and not half enough to reach Washington. He made inquiries concerning vessels about to sail for the western coast of America, and found that the English steamer Batavia was on the point of clearing for Vancouver, British Columbia. Going at once on board, he asked the purser what the fare to Vancouver would be in the steerage. The officer looked at him for a moment, saw that, although a foreigner, he was unmistakably a gentleman, and then replied bluntly but not unkindly, "My dear sir, you can't go in the steerage—it's jammed full of Chinese emigrants. Nobody ever goes in the steerage except Chinks. It's no place for you."

"I must get to Vancouver," said Volkhovsky, "and I have very little money. The steerage will do. I've been in much worse places."

"All right!" replied the purser. "I'll sell you a steerage ticket, but you can't live three weeks with Chinese emigrants—that's out of the question. When we get to sea I'll find a place for you somewhere."

Until the Batavia had actually sailed and was out of the harbor, Volkhovsky did not dare to let the passengers or even the officers of the steamer know who he really was and whence he had come. He believed that he had narrowly escaped detection and capture in Nagasaki, and he did not intend to run any more risks that could be avoided. At last, however, when the Batavia was far at sea and the coast of Japan had sunk beneath the rim of the western horizon, he told his story to the officers of the ship, and admitted to the passengers with whom he became acquainted that he was an escaped political exile from Siberia. The interest and sympathy excited by his narrative deepened as the officers and passengers became better acquainted with him, and long before the Batavia reached Vancouver he had so completely won the hearts of the whole ship's company that they took up a collection for the purpose of providing him with transportation from Vancouver to the city of Washington. To this collection every soul on board contributed, from the captain down to the steward, the cook, and even the boy who cleaned the ship's lamps. When he left the steamer he had money enough for a first-class railway ticket to Washington, and sixty Mexican silver dollars for incidental expenses.

My first knowledge of Volkhovsky's escape came to me in a letter addressed in his familiar handwriting and postmarked "Vancouver." Wondering how an exile in eastern Siberia could possibly have mailed a letter—or had it mailed—in British Columbia, I tore open the envelope and read the first three lines. They were as follows:

"My dear George Ivanovitch: At last I am free! I am writing this letter to you not from that land of exile, Siberia, but from free America."

If I had suddenly received a letter postmarked "Zanzibar" from a friend whom I had thought of as probably dead and buried in Alaska, I could hardly have been more astonished. Volkhovsky free, and in British Columbia, within a few days' journey of New York! It seemed utterly incredible. At the time when this letter reached me I was lecturing six nights a week in New York and New England; but I telegraphed and wrote Volkhovsky that I would meet him at the Delevan House, in Albany, on the morning of Sunday, December 8. I spoke Saturday evening in Utica, took the night express for Albany, and reached the Delevan House about two o'clock. Volkhovsky had not yet arrived, and as it was uncertain when he would come, I went to bed. Early in the morning a bell-boy knocked loudly at my door and handed me a slip of paper upon which, in Volkhovsky's handwriting, were the words, "My dear fellow, I am here."

If any of the guests of the Delevan House

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happened to be passing through that corridor, on their way to breakfast, they must have been surprised to see, at the door of No. 90, a man in a nightshirt locked in the embrace of a traveler who had not had time to remove his Pacific-coast sombrero and heavy winter overcoat.

Volkhovsky was in better health than I had expected to see him, but his face was worn and haggard, and at times there was a peculiar anxious, hunted expression in his eyes, which showed that he had recently been under great mental and emotional strain. Almost the first thing he said to me was: "George Ivanovitch, I am forty-two years of age. I have lost all my family except my little daughter Vera, whom I have left in eastern Siberia. I am afraid that the Government, when it learns of my escape, will do something with her—perhaps put her in an asylum, where I can never see her again. If I can only recover her, I may have strength, even at my age and in my broken health, to begin a new life in a new and strange country; but if I lose her, I may as well lie down and die."

"We'll get your daughter," I said, "if I have to go to Siberia myself, on a forged passport, and kidnap her."

Volkhovsky knew a lady in St. Petersburg who could be trusted to manage the little girl's escape, but she was a political suspect, and it might not be safe to send the necessary money to her directly. I therefore wrote to a friend in one of the foreign legations in the Russian capital, explained to him the circumstances of the case, and asked him: "Will you cash a bank draft for eight hundred rubles, if I send you one, and give the money, in Russian notes, to a lady who will call at the legation and present my card? You are not to know who she is, and you are not to ask her any questions. If she presents my card, she is to have the cash." This letter I sent to the Foreign Office of the country that my friend's legation represented, with a request that it be forwarded. In due course of time I received a reply in which the attaché said that while it was not a part of his official duty to facilitate the escape of exiles—young or old—from Siberia, he could not see that even the Russian Government would be injured by the return of a nine-year-old girl to her father, and that he would therefore receive and deliver the money as requested. "But, my dear Mr. Kennan," he added, "did you suppose that by sending your letter to our Foreign Office you could prevent inspection of it by the Russian *cabinet noir?* Our official letters are often opened, although, so far as I can judge, this particular one has escaped."

The money reached its destination safely and was forwarded to Irkutsk. There Volkhovsky's friends cut the little girl's hair short, clothed her in the dress of a boy, and sent her, in care of a trustworthy attendant, to St. Petersburg. There was no transcontinental Siberian railway at that time, and Vera and her companion made the journey of nearly four thousand miles with relays of post-horses. In St. Petersburg Volkhovsky's friends and the sympathetic attaché committed her to the care of a German gentleman, who happened to be traveling in Russia with his family, and he and his wife undertook to get her across the frontier and take her to London. In the early part of 1890 Volkhovsky went to England to meet her, and in June I received a cable from him saying, "Hurrah! my child has arrived."

In a letter written about a year later to a friend in the United States, Hesba Stretton, the well-known English novelist, referred to Volkhovsky and his daughter as follows:

> Volkhovsky, who escaped from Siberia rather more than a year ago, has been lecturing in England all winter. He has a charming little daughter, ten years old, who was born in exile. She has been staying for a fortnight with my married sister and her two daughters, and they are quite delighted with her—she is so original and affectionate, and she has had so much tragedy in her short life, which she speaks of now and then as if horrors were a natural part of existence to her. She was brought through Russia and Siberia disguised as a boy. We hope to wean her thoughts from these terrible subjects and give her something of the ordinary joys of childhood. But her destiny must be a sad one, for she will surely (and quite rightly) throw in her lot with the revolutionists of Russia, and, unless the revolution comes soon, our little Vera will spend much of her life in prison and in exile. She was showing Annie how the orthodox Russians hold their thumbs and two fingers pressed together to represent the Trinity during their worship, and then she said, "But God doesn't mind how we hold our fingers, does He?" She was moaning in her sleep one night, and when Daisy woke her she said: "I dreamed there were spies in the room, and I pretended to be asleep until they went to sleep, and then I got up and crept to the cot where my baby brother was. I said, 'Hush! Don't make a noise, for there are spies in the room,' and I took him up and went to the door, watching the spies all the time; and I opened the door and there were some men hung up, and my father's head lay on the ground, and his

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body was a little way off, covered with a white cloth." Think of that for the dream of a child of ten years!

Volkhovsky soon established himself in England, and there, encouraged by the recovery of his daughter and sustained by the influences of a favorable and friendly environment, he regained, in great measure, his health and strength. He became the editor of "Free Russia," the paper established in London by the Friends of Russian Freedom; wrote articles for the "Contemporary," "National," and other English reviews; lectured on Russian subjects in all parts of Great Britain; and lived, generally, a happy and useful life. His daughter Vera grew up to young womanhood in England, was educated in Girton College, and when I saw her last, about three years ago, she was teaching in Dumferline, Scotland.

Upon the outbreak of the revolution in Russia in 1905, Volkhovsky, then fifty-eight years of age, returned to the country where he had experienced so much sorrow and suffering, and again took up the fight for freedom by establishing and editing a liberal newspaper in Finland. The revolutionary movement, however, failed, and he was forced, much against his will, to return to London. "I should have stayed with my comrades," he afterward said to me, "and should have fought it through to the end, if I had been well enough; but I can no longer endure a term of fortress imprisonment, and my death in a casemate would not have helped my country."

Volkhovsky has not lived—and probably will not live—to see Russia free; but his life has not been a failure. A greater poet than he, but not, perhaps, a braver man, said, before he perished at Missolonghi in the struggle for Greek independence:

"They never fail who fight in a great cause."

SOCIALISM ON TRIAL

BY LOUIS HEATON PINK

FROM New York to San Francisco, gesticulating street orators urge Schenectady as proof of successful Socialism. What has really been done in that little industrial city on the banks of the Mohawk? How does Socialist administration differ from any other?

When I came upon Walter Kruesi, Commissioner of Charities, he was sweeping out the municipal store in the basement of City Hall Annex. "We are a little short-handed to-day," he remarked, and went on with the job. The floor swept, we started upstairs. On the way we met an Italian woman with a mesh bag. "I came for some groceries," she said. "You are half an hour late, and the store is locked," said the Commissioner; "however, come on." He turned back, opened the store, and filled the mesh bag, which seemed capable of indefinite expansion. He was not cross or hurried, but suggested olive oil and macaroni when his customer had exhausted her wants.

Many of the callers in the Mayor's office were workmen in overalls. As I was talking with Mayor George R. Lunn, the janitor, brush in hand, came in to discuss the policy of the administration.

The workman feels that the government is his as much as the shop-owner's, and that he is an important part of the body politic. City officials look upon their work as a mission. Democracy is real, not simulated.

Otherwise this Socialist administration and a Democratic or Republican administration are the same. Social revolution and common ownership of the tools of production are no nearer in Schenectady than in New York or Chicago or Key West.

THE BIG THINGS

The Socialist administration began January 1, 1912. I asked the Mayor what he considered the big things done. He answered:

(1) Solving the water problem.

(2) Increasing the pay of laborers.

(3) Establishing a garbage-disposal plant, and beginning the free collection of garbage and ashes.

Schenectady owns its water system, but in 1903 made a contract with the Schenectady Railway Company—now the Schenectady

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Illuminating Company—to pump for the city system. For several years the company and the city have been at odds, each claiming breach of contract. The city has failed to provide adequate storage, and the company has not established proper pumping facilities and maintained adequate pressure. The city was growing fast, and the situation became dangerous. On July 28, 1913, the Common Council ratified an agreement with the company, which promised to erect new pumps and release the city from all claims for damages, the city binding itself to build a twelve-million-gallon storage reservoir.

When the Socialists found themselves at the helm, laborers were paid $1.75 a day. One of the first acts of the new administration was to raise the pay to $2. Last spring another increase was made to $2.25. The city compels contractors on municipal work to pay the same wage, so that the average rate in all employments has been affected. Mayor Lunn says that labor is better paid in Schenectady than in any other city in the State.

Schenectady has never before made provision for disposal of garbage. The State Board of Health long ago ordered the city to build a disposal plant, but only now is the work under way. A portion of an island in the Mohawk River has been purchased for the site and a contract for the plant has been let. Within another month the city will have taken over the collection of garbage and ashes. The superintendent, a practical wagon-builder, is constructing ash and garbage wagons by direct employment at a considerable saving to the city.

These are, in the eyes of the Mayor, the three "big things." There is nothing Socialistic about them. Any moderately progressive city would have done likewise. The remarkable thing is that these needs were not attended to years ago and that it was left to a chance Socialist administration to gain the credit for doing the obvious.

Schenectady has had a magic growth. In 1890 the population was 19,900; in 1900, 31,600; in 1910, 72,800; to-day it is close to 90,000. When the Socialists were put in power, the city was like an overgrown youth, man-size in knee pants. Streets, parks, schools, public conveniences—none of these had been cut to fit.

Twenty-five per cent of the public school pupils are on half time. Sixty-five per cent of the schools are overcrowded. In eight years the number of high school pupils has doubled, and there are not accommodations for them. Through a bond issue the Socialists have authorized the erection of schools to accommodate all pupils on full time.

Of parks and playgrounds there were one each on January 1, 1912. The sole park is the patch of green at the head of State Street. There are now ten playgrounds, adjacent to school buildings, all equipped and under competent supervision.

A City Plan and Park Commission has been appointed by the Mayor, consisting of one Socialist, Professor Charles P. Steinmetz, of Union College, who is also President of the Board of Education, three citizens who represent the political parties as well as the large industries of the city, and a woman physician. This board has prepared a plan for an ideal Schenectady of the future, and has recommended the purchase of three large parks with the proceeds of the $300,000 bond issue recently made for this purpose. One of these takes in the land along the river front, which is capable of being made into one of the finest public pleasure resorts in the country.

A central purchasing bureau has been established, which buys supplies in quantities for all departments, and has effected a saving estimated at thirty per cent.

Plans have been prepared for the market site purchased by the former administration. Buildings are to be erected with stores and stalls. The market should bring farmer and consumer face to face, and reduce the cost of food. Heretofore the market has been largely for the supply of stores and hotels.

Schenectady has this year joined Worcester, Los Angeles, Milwaukee, and other progressive cities in using schools and public buildings for polling-places. Fifteen public buildings (including the City Hall, fire-house, court-house, municipal lodging-house, and eleven school basements), one church, eleven booths, and three business buildings will be used.

THE DEPARTMENTS

Charles A. Mullen is the Commissioner of Public Works. He is not much over thirty, a quiet, determined Irish-American, imported from Milwaukee. He was in the Department of Public Works there during the Socialist régime. Dr. Lunn got him through the National headquarters of the Socialist party.

The most spectacular feat accomplished

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by the Department of Public Works is the reduction in the cost of asphalt pavement. Patching has come down from $2.16 under the former administration to $1.16, and the same company is doing the work. The cost of laying new asphalt has been reduced from $2.20 a yard to $1.05.

The soil under the city is heavy sand; many streets have been asphalted in outlying parts, thus, as Commissioner Mullen puts it, "bringing the householders from the country to the city."

Sewers, pavements, sidewalks, water mains, have been rushed, and, if the statement of the officials is accurate, more public work has been done in a year and a half of Socialist leadership than in the ten years preceding. An engineer has been put in charge of city work, and the contractors are held up to specifications—which had not heretofore been strictly enforced.

John E. Cole, Commissioner of Public Safety, is a Schenectady man. Through rigid economy he has saved enough from his appropriation to equip the Fire Department with five motor-driven apparatus. This has added greatly to the efficiency of the force, and insurance rates have been reduced. The Police Department now has a motor patrol wagon.

The Health Service has had the attention of the entire administration. The Board of Public Welfare, which Helen Keller was to head, is modeled after a department of the same name in Kansas City; it has made many suggestions for more effective work. The number of health physicians has been increased from one to four. These doctors give free medical attention to any poor family. It is the aim of the Socialist to make medical attention free for all wage-earners a matter of right rather than charity. A milk station and a dental clinic have been established. A maternity and infancy nurse has been added to the health staff, and the force of school nurses increased. A free city dispensary has been started. A chemist has been engaged and rigid inspection of the milk and food supply is carried on.

Walter E. Kruesi, Commissioner of Charities, is an enthusiastic member of the cabinet. Upon his door appear the title "Commissioner of Charities" and "Board of Public Welfare," and in small letters in the corner, as befits the modesty of a Socialist, "Walter E. Kruesi . . . Member." Kruesi has charge of many of the more Socialistic enterprises of the administration. He is a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania, a son of the former Superintendent of the General Electric Works, was Assistant Secretary of the Charity Organization Society of New York, and before his call to Schenectady was Director of the Milk and Baby Hygiene Committee of Boston. He is a member of the radical wing of the party, and with Robert Bakeman has led the onslaughts upon the more conservative policies of the Mayor.

A municipal lodging-house has been founded to take care of men who seek jobs in Schenectady and find themselves stranded. The Erie Canal and the railway add to the number of transients. Heretofore these men have been put to bed on newspapers spread over the concrete floor of the police station cellar. Kruesi has fitted up a house, gives his guests supper, a bath, a carbolic acid douche, sees that their heads are shampooed with green soap, hands out a clean nightshirt, and puts them to bed between sheets. This treatment seems to be appreciated, with the possible exception of the carbolic acid and green soap, for many of the men write back that Schenectady and Buffalo are the only cities which treat their guests like men.

With the help of his wife, who gave her services to the city, Kruesi started a municipal employment bureau, which has been taken over by the Department of Public Works.

STEPS TOWARDS SOCIALISM

Strange that in strict business matters the Socialists have made exceptional progress and in matters Socialistic they have failed, or nearly. In several instances all that saved them was an injunction from the hostile camp.

The municipal store and the sale of ice and coal by the city are steps towards Socialism. The city store sold about twenty per cent under the market rate. It had no rent to pay. It did not deliver. Hence its trade was small, about $300 a week. Then came the injunction. People who had never shown the slightest interest in the venture bemoaned the fact that the privilege of buying at cost was denied them. Nothing became it like its death. The store is now an adjunct of the Charities Department; through it provisions are given to the poor instead of money.

On June 1, 1912, the city began peddling ice. The price was reduced about forty per cent, and a large clientele among the poorer people was soon built up. On the 4th of July came an injunction—fortunately, for the city

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was losing money. The work was badly organized. It is no easy job for the city to compete with the iceman; to succeed it must have a monopoly. If the city had a monopoly of the ice and coal business, say the Socialists, it could cut the cost almost in half.

Coal is still sold. To avoid an injunction the business was taken out of the hands of the city and put in charge of an organization of Socialist office-holders called the Lunn Associates. From fifty to seventy-five cents a ton is saved to the purchaser. The Lunn Associates have had their troubles with inferior coal and slack business methods, but now they are well organized and moderately successful.

THE MAYOR

The sparking-plug of the Socialist machine, the Mayor, is tall, thin, distinguished-looking; clean shaven, boyish, well dressed. He has an engaging smile. He runs rapidly over the scale from comic to serious and back again. He rams home his arguments with gestures, has a splendid voice and an eye that holds. Impetuous, full of fun, bubbling over with boyish enthusiasm, rushing pell-mell into some serious difficulty and smiling and bluffing his way out, courageous to a fault, by many considered the best orator in New York State, Mayor Lunn is a power to be reckoned with.

Few dime-novel heroes have had careers more varied than his.

He was called to Schenectady to become the pastor of the First Reformed Church, a wealthy parish, the front pews filled by the best families, many of them descendants from the old Dutch settlers. Lunn spoke from the shoulder. He preached Christian Socialism. Soon the church was in uproar. There was the Lunn or radical faction and the conservative element. Forced out, Lunn consolidated two dwindling congregations into the United People's Church. Here too a rift soon appeared. To this day the anti-Lunn faction uses the church at night and the Mayor preaches in the forenoon.

Lunn not only split open his churches, but the whole town took sides. To aid his fight Dr. Lunn purchased the "Citizen," a weekly paper, and made it the Socialist organ. This brought him a wider audience. He was nominated for Mayor in the fall of 1911; the people were disgusted with both old parties, the star of destiny twinkled, and, much to the surprise of every one, including the pastor-editor, he was elected.

"What are the big obstacles you have encountered?" I asked the Mayor.

"Whenever we try to do anything," he answered, "we run up against the Charter. It is an oak charter, fixed and immovable. It is, by all means, the one great obstacle we have had to overcome. Our second greatest trouble has been pettifogging politicians, the 'old guard.' They have done everything possible to block us. Take the matter of injunctions. My drawer is full of them. The wonder is that we have been able to do anything, hampered this way."

That very instant the "old guard" was seeking the arrest of the Mayor because he had with his own hands chopped down an injunction-protected tree in the center of the sidewalk which impeded the work of laying water mains.

"Do you know," said the Mayor, with quiet earnestness, "they charge me with being against law? I am not. I believe in law. The more I see law abused, the more I believe in it. Law should be for the protection of the people, it should not be abused. It should be another name for justice. Law is the shell, justice is the kernel. It is the kernel that is alive, the shell is a mere covering. Sometimes it may be necessary to break the shell to give the kernel room to grow. Law should accommodate itself to justice."

From law he turned to Christianity.

"Christianity is service," mused the Mayor. "Often those who do not profess Christianity, because they do not understand its forms, are the best Christians. They are the servants of their fellows. Law and Christianity are the foundations of the Socialist State. We can't inaugurate Socialism here. No city or group of cities can do it. But we can show the people that Socialism is not dangerous. Why, many prophesied ruin for the city when we came into power. Instead, Schenectady has grown as never before."

CRITICS OF THE ADMINISTRATION

No one utterly condemns the administration. "They have done some good things, but—" is the way political opponents start off. The head of one of the largest industries in the town said: "The Socialists have accomplished some things, but any administration would have done the same, perhaps

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better. It is absurd to claim credit for everything. Why, the city was growing so fast that many improvements had to be made. They delayed the water supply question until recently, and have settled it much as was before proposed, though they claim the new contract is more to the city's interest. It is too early to tell how well they have succeeded with their pavements. It will be time to claim credit for these when they have been down a few years. They have failed to widen any of the cross streets running into State Street, which is our only business artery and must be relieved."

A well-informed man whose business keeps him in close touch with the City Hall said: "Lots of needed things have been done, but the Socialists can't claim the credit. The Socialist party has been a drag upon the administration. It has kept butting in and trying to run affairs from headquarters. The administration has accomplished what any good reform administration would have, but it has been despite the Socialists, not because of them. Take the so-called Socialist ventures, like the store and the sale of ice. They were losing money. I know it. Every time an injunction came it saved the city money. The Mayor's closest personal confidant as well as his legal adviser, Corporation Counsel Frank Cooper, is not a Socialist at all."

"There's a lot of bluff about what they claim they have done," said a middle-class citizen on a business visit to the City Hall. "They are good on promises. In some way they are right, though. Now take the assessors. The Socialists refuse to sign the tax roll because several parcels of acreage in the city limits, next to lots, are assessed at only a tenth of the value of the adjoining property. It's a shame to let the big fellows get away with such injustice. On the other hand, when the Socialist assessors want to jump the General Electric Company and the American Locomotive Works to about double their present valuation, I say they are wrong. If they drive away the big concerns, the whole town will go to the dogs."

I could not find a single individual to accuse the Socialists of graft. "I honestly believe that not a penny has been stolen," said a prominent lawyer. Mayor Lunn has challenged his critics to disprove this contention, and no charge of misuse of the city funds has been made on the platform or in the hostile press.

The chief criticism is extravagance. The yearly cost of running the city has not increased more than the usual percentage due to growth. But the Socialists have increased the bonded indebtedness over 25 per cent. The following bond issues have been authorized:

Garbage disposal	$100,000
Cotton Hollow Bridge	25,000
Villa Road Bridge	25,000
Sewers	100,000
Market	90,000
Fire	22,000
Schools	800,000
Parks	300,000
Total	$1,462,000

CATHOLICS IN THE FOLD

Socialists and Catholics are supposed to be in a desperate fight for life—but not in Schenectady. There is little bitterness. The church authorities are friendly. From ten to fifteen per cent of the members of the Socialist party are Catholics. In New York, Chicago, and other large cities Socialists are largely foreigners. In Schenectady many native Americans have joined the ranks. The Socialists are as representative of the population of Schenectady as any other party.

STRUGGLES WITHIN THE CAMP

All is not peaceful in the Socialist camp. There are radical Socialists and conservative Socialists. The revolutionary wing clamors for more drastic action, for warfare against capitalism, for government not by the chosen of the people, but by the party through its local branches and caucuses. The more conservative members, led by the Mayor, plead for orderly progress, for making a record in good government. Those who are most discontented with the administration are the skilled Belgian, Scotch, and English mechanics who have been in touch with the movement on the other side. The Americans seem well satisfied.

Mayor Lunn has stood out firmly against party government. He has insisted that he be left free to act according to his conscience. He has refused to bow his head to caucus domination. When the Socialist party voted that officials must in all things follow the party vote, Dr. Lunn refused to pledge himself to this policy, but despite his bold stand was renominated almost unanimously.

The effect of the party on the administration is disputed. Some say that it has been a drag, threatening disaster through tyranny and meddling; others that it has been an

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inspiration to the officials—that the existence of a solid and powerful body watching every act and demanding more and yet more has forced the city officials to accomplish far greater results than would have been possible if they had been left alone. However that may be, we have not reached that point in America where we are willing to surrender the government of our cities to any party machine. The domination of a Socialist machine is likely to be as arrogant and as dangerous as that of any other party. We are trying to free our cities from party domination. It is that which has led us into the mire of graft and incompetence. The Socialists cannot go far if they keep candidates chosen by the people under leash and chain. So far party dictation has been held at bay; it must continue to be held at bay or Socialist rule in Schenectady will go to smash.

SOCIALISTS A MINORITY

Excepting so far as Socialism voices protest against the old order in politics, Schenectady is not a Socialist city. There are but 1,200 enrolled members of the party. Mayor Lunn received 6,536 votes out of a total of 15,357, running an even thousand ahead of the Democratic candidate, Charles H. Benedict. But almost two-thirds of these voters were Democrats and Republicans. The last National election is a close indication of the real strength of the party. Debs polled 2,871 votes out of 13,477.

All three parties, Democratic, Republican, and Progressive, have fused to beat the Socialists. J. Teller Schoolcraft, an able lawyer, and an elder in Dr. Lunn's first church, has been chosen to head the ticket. Everything points to a repetition of the experience in Milwaukee, where, though the Socialist vote increased, yet, through fusion of all parties, Mayor Seidel was beaten. The re-election of Mayor Lunn seems impossible. Yet the working people, the employees of the General Electric Company and the American Locomotive Company, have the votes, and if it becomes a line-up of workers against the more prosperous classes a Socialist victory is assured.

THE SPECTATOR

THE Spectator no longer has to leave his home town in order to witness the most thrilling events. Only he must confess that, like the dear old lady in the much more ancient anecdote, he must complain of the same lack of continuity that she found in the dictionary, for he too often "cannot get the hang of the story." Adventures come to the Spectator's very neighborhood, but they come piecemeal.

Only the other day he was present at a heartrending scene. A young and beautiful lady, standing on the platform of our station, suddenly darted piercing and suspicious glances at an automobile wherein her recreant lover (probably) was hurrying away (it seemed) with another pretty lady (or nearly), and it was only in the nick of time that another automobile passed and was signaled by the lady of the first part. In she clambered, and away went pursuer and pursued, to dash wildly around a corner, and—to return with much composure to the point or place of beginning, where injured innocence and hard-hearted villainy once more enacted the flight and chase.

The Spectator is aware that every bright reader has already said: "Of course—moving pictures!" But he had no idea of imposing on the acute reader; he meant only to tell the tale as it came to his imagination, which chose to ignore the man behind the camera, who, heartless, turned the handle to record the actions of beauty in distress. When the pictures were secured, it was a joy to see all the *dramatis personæ* pile into one car, while the camera and other adjuncts were loaded into the other.

There have been much more exciting scenes than that—whole regiments in dusty garb have defiled to bloodless battles in our very prettiest meadows; elopements have taken place from a neighbor's own doorstep, amid the wide-eyed wonder of our youngest townsfolk. And this very morning the Spectator saw a cold-hearted young gentleman with blackened eyebrows refuse to heed the

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appeal for recognition made by a young woman with much blacker eyebrows, who deceived the camera into thinking that she arrived on our 12:12 A.M. train, though the Spectator knows that she didn't and that her grief was an assumed sham. The Spectator was impressed by the artful artlessness of the whole proceeding—of the loosely flowing necktie of the first walking gentleman, that gives such an outdoors effect when upon the screen; of the travel-worn suit-case in which the fleeing heroine conveyed her worldly goods; of the casual, rural stranger placed near the meeting couple to tell them where they would find whatever they were seeking. But the stage manager's skillful words of direction proved how carefully every action was controlled: "Keep your eyes on his face!" "That'll do!" "Now turn away!" and so on, to the minutest point of behavior. Then, too, before the scene was displayed, there were chalk marks on the platform to show where each was to stand, for otherwise we might have had but half a villain on the screen, or one whose feet or head was lacking, and many inches of valuable celluloid might be made useless.

The Spectator, as is his privilege, entered into conversation with a disengaged actor of the company, and, being most courteously answered, learned something of his experiences, and incidentally of his real interest in his work. The actor believed that the art was in its infancy, and yet spoke warmly of the talent of many of his associates. His account of work in the streets of New York showed that the interest of all classes in the picture drama was keen, but that the co-operation of the street boys was at times more mischievous than helpful.

Seeing the rehearsal—but it was not a rehearsal, was it?—solved one question that had long been in the Spectator's mind. He had often wondered whether the actors in these wordless plays got their sense of action and consequent expression by actually using words aloud. He was pleased to find that the words were actually spoken, though in a lower tone and with far less declamatory style than in the old drama. The Spectator believes that there is one distinct advantage in thus lessening the importance of the words, and substituting simple, every-day expressions for the more stilted language of the stage: it brings a sense of reality to the scene, and tends to make the action itself less stagy. In fact, there may come much good to the old style of play from this dumb sister of hers. At least, each mime may now see himself as others see him, and indeed the same "power" of Burns's wish is within reach of many, especially as it is becoming a feature of this form of entertainment in many towns to reproduce local happenings of the current week.

Possibly we may some day seek educational cinematograph establishments in order that we may be able to correct certain shortcomings there presented to us for self-criticism. The Spectator offers this suggestion and its outcome freely to professors of deportment, of dancing, calisthenics, or to whomsoever it may concern. As the dictagraph records conversations without the knowledge of the speakers, so the motion-camera may some day be brought to record actions, though the Spectator hopes that it may never be turned upon him during—we will say—his less amiable moments.

He would not like to see a counterfeit presentment of himself on one of these very rare occasions when his temper at breakfast is not such as he would altogether commend to the younger members of his household for close imitation. Yet this is not to say that the moral lesson conveyed by such an exhibition might not be worth many verbal admonitions. Imagine a home exhibit of the following reels:

1. Papa and mamma squabbling at breakfast. One reel.
2. Sister looking for her thimble in mamma's basket. One reel.
3. Tommy comes late to breakfast. Two reels.
4. Toddles puts the toy-closet "in order"(!). Two reels.

Here an irreverent friend suggests "5. Papa comes home at 2 A.M. Five reels;" but the Spectator is not reduced to cheap puns, and fears to detract from the seriousness of his purpose. For he is truly impressed with the fact that the moving pictures have brought a new force into our hands.

When this is understood fully, we shall revise the old quotation and make it read: "Let me provide a people's moving pictures, and I care not who writes their songs."

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THE NEW BOOKS

JAPANESE COLOR-PRINTS[1]

BY HOWARD MANSFIELD

Widely divergent views have been held with regard to a place and rank for Japanese color-prints among works of art. In Japan the connoisseurs, who rightly regard painting as the highest form of native art, have generally—at least until quite recent times—treated the color-prints as creditable products of clever artisanship rather than art creations of high rank. This view has probably been influenced largely by the circumstances of their origin and character. Arising outside the recognized schools of painting and dealing with subjects that were ordinary, vulgar, or sometimes ignoble—depicting actors, courtesans, fashions, wares for sale, and scenes in the every-day life of the common people—these highly colored sheets, issued in considerable numbers to meet the demands of members of the despised commercial class and the scorned frequenters of the theaters, could find but scant favor with the upper classes under the feudal system. Yet the fact that the reasons for the issue of these prints and their peculiar subjects were apparently so uninspiring should really make the prints appear the more remarkable as works of art. For, in spite of their purpose and character, they display qualities of composition and line, rhythm and color, which have really no parallel in pictorial art anywhere.

Japanese disapproval of the color-prints has also been explained on the ground that they were not original works of the designers, but translations only, varying in merit according to the skill of the engraver and the handiwork of the printer. Yet the designs are there, although in some instances varied from time to time in color; and we of the West, who esteem the mezzotints and line engravings from the masterpieces of painters as only less fine than the originals, and give high rank to the engravers, can scarcely be expected to underrate the Japanese prints because they are not paintings. We may therefore fairly conclude that while Japanese color-prints may not be generally accepted in the West as "the finest things in pure art since the Greek," as they are in the opinion of one eminent American connoisseur, they have, nevertheless, been hitherto much underrated in the country of their origin, in which they form one of the three phases of art which Japan may fairly claim as distinctively her own—the other two being the art of lacquer, so variedly and beautifully applied, and the art of metal work, developed to perfection in sword guards and minor sword fittings.

Although other forms of Japanese art earlier made their appearance in the West, the color-prints have been the chief avenue of access to Occidental knowledge of the art of Japan. Indeed, it may safely be said that there are now no such collections of Japanese prints in Japan as are to be found in the vast, though ill-arranged, possessions of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, and in many public and private collections in France, Germany, England, and the United States.

An exhibition of representative color-prints, drawn entirely from private collections in the city of New York, was held in that city in April, 1911, under the auspices of the Japan Society, and for many weeks attracted commendable attention. The exhibition was opened by a lecture by Mr. Frederick William Gookin, of Chicago, himself an enthusiastic and discriminative collector; and this lecture, somewhat enlarged, has now been issued as a publication of the Society—an excellent piece of book-making from the De Vinne Press, illustrated with more than twenty reproductions of representative prints that were exhibited. The text of the book forms a concise and comprehensive treatise, giving with unmistakable knowledge an adequate review of the origin, development, and decline of this unique phase of Japanese art. The circumstances to which this popular art of *Ukiyoé*—pictures of the fleeting world—owes its birth and rapid growth are set forth with an exactness based evidently on critical study, and the characteristics and relative importance of the many designers of the color-prints are very judiciously considered. The author's style is an admirable example of lucid English, and the treatise may justly be regarded, in spite of its brevity, as an exposition of the whole subject as interesting and useful as any that has thus far appeared in any language.

Appended to the lecture is the catalogue of the exhibition, also prepared with valuable biographical notes by Mr. Gookin—an appendix which must be of special value to all col-

[1] Japanese Colour-Prints and Their Designers. By Frederick William Gookin. Japan Society, New York.

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lectors. The catalogue has, besides, a local interest due to the fact that a considerable number of the prints exhibited now belong to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, where they are open to special study even when not publicly displayed; examples of many of the prints being also available for examination in the large and important collection in the New York Public Library.

The illustrations deserve more than a passing notice. The result of a novel process, the peculiar possession of the De Vinne Press, they represent so successfully the flatness of the original printing, as well as the original coloring, that it seems not too much to say that, as reproductions of Japanese color-prints, they surpass anything of the kind produced outside of Japan.

Taken as a whole, this publication is a notable contribution to our knowledge of the fascinating subject with which it deals, and must take high and permanent rank among authoritative treatises in the field of Japanese art. Its importance is such that, although issued only on subscription by members of the Japan Society, it ought to be available through them to all who are interested in the subject.

Robin Hood's Barn. By Alice Brown. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.25.

A young writer who has made something of a success and has attracted sufficient attention to secure a commission for writing the biography of a popular novelist comes upon an element of mystery in the letters which this novelist leaves him—certain references to "Robin Hood's Barn," the meaning of which he cannot discover. He is called upon by a very attractive young woman, the daughter of a famous financier, who insists that he shall write the life of her father. He declines, but gets an invitation to visit her. Incidentally he discovers that an explanation of the mystery which he has not been able to find lies in a certain correspondence between the successful novelist and the aunt of the young girl. He finally secures this correspondence, and from it he extracts a very interesting human experience. Meanwhile, of course, there is a contemporary love story. Miss Brown likes an uncommon subject. The experience disclosed in "Robin Hood's Barn" is not of a kind which happens to most women or to the majority of men; but it is consistently and coherently told; and the story belongs with the interesting fiction of the season.

Ramona. By Helen Hunt Jackson. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $2.

Mrs. Jackson's beautiful story, which first appeared in this journal, has become an American classic. This new edition attempts by an Introduction and photographs to settle disputed points as to the places the knowledge of which gave the author the fact-foundation of her story.

Thorley Weir. By E. F. Benson. The J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. $1.25.

A novel kind of a villain is the "middleman" in this story. He is a connoisseur in art and also knows a lot about the stage. So when he finds a struggling young artist or play-writer of genius, he pets him, buys his first work, and then exacts an option-contract by which he gets future good work at a trifling price. He buys masterpieces, too, from friends after he has bargained to resell them to rich collectors at an enormous profit. All "within the law," but mean and tricky. The novel has a delightful old lady and a pretty love story. It is not Mr. Benson's best book, but it reads easily and is amusing.

Honourable Mr. Tawnish (The). By Jeffery Farnol. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $1.

Slight, rollicking, and romantic—highwaymen, a duel, love, sentiment, and all that pertains to the Farnol type of eighteenth-century tale—but on a minute scale as compared with his two best-known books.

Jungle Book (The). By Rudyard Kipling. The Century Company, New York. $2.50.

This new illustrated edition of Kipling's famous stories has many full-page color illustrations by Maurice and Edward Detwold, English painters and illustrators of repute. It has also color borders for all the pages, and a cover-design harmonious in scheme and excellent in general effect. Altogether, the edition is almost sumptuous.

White Thread (The). By Robert Halifax. The F. A. Stokes Company, New York. $1.25.

A careful and moving rendering of the life of a brave little London servant girl. Her mother is a drunkard, her brother an imbecile, her father dejected and hopeless, her would-be lover a criminal—but, happily, there is an honest plumber, Big Bill, to save her. Yet, dreary and sodden as all this sounds, the little maid has such faithfulness, simple honesty, and reality that one follows her troubles with genuine interest. The book does not bore the reader, and it does appeal to his finer sensibilities.

Early English Water-Colour. By C. E. Hughes. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. $1.

The latest addition to the series called "Little Books on Art" is by C. E. Hughes and has to do with early English water-color. The publication is timely because most people know little about early English water-color. The present volume comprises those artists who worked during the eighteenth century and the first half of the nineteenth. The death of Turner in 1851

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marks the close of the period. The volume is, of course, not encyclopædic—so small a book could not be. But it does include the principal names, and its informative text is greatly strengthened by well-chosen illustration.

Gentlemen Rovers. By E. Alexander Powell, F.R.G.S. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.50.

Who were the "Gentlemen Rovers" described by Mr. Alexander Powell? They were, first of all, Parker Boyd in India and then in our own West; Truxton and his bluejackets; Eaton, who with his army marched across six hundred miles of overgrown desert and brought the Barbary despots to their knees; Reed, of the General Armstrong, who, in the harbor of Fayal in the Azores, held off a British force twenty times stronger than his own, and then sunk his vessel rather than surrender; Lafitte, the pirate who turned patriot and became the chief defense of Louisiana against invasion; Smith, who blazed the Overland Trail. There were others too. Mr. Powell tells us graphically about all of them in a book good for younger as well as for older readers.

Stained Glass Tour in Italy (A). By Charles Hitchcock Sherrill. The John Lane Company, New York. $4.

If travelers have not read Mr. Sherrill's "Stained Glass Tours" in France and England they might well consult those volumes, for our late Minister to Argentina has "struck out" in a new and profitable line of observation. His present volume on Italy also offers considerable scope for these peculiar researches, and, like its predecessors, should appeal not only to travelers, but also to craftsmen; indeed, its appeal may be greater than that of the volumes on France and Italy, because one does not as a rule associate stained glass as much with Italy as with the Gothic churches of the above-mentioned countries. Mr. Sherrill takes us from Rome northward, and does indeed introduce us to certain stained-glass sights which otherwise might have gone unnoticed, especially in some of the small places about Florence and Milan. We are glad to learn that Mr. Sherrill has in view a similar volume on Germany. In it we hope to find such a practical little appendix as in the present volume, giving a list of towns and showing the epochs of their windows.

United States and Mexico (The). By George Lockhart Rives. In 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $8.

This elaborate work covers the history of the relations between the United States and Mexico only for the period between the independence of Mexico, 1821, and the end of the war with the United States, 1848. It is the outcome of a thorough study of original sources; and while the two volumes with their seven hundred pages each make a formidable work for the average reader, and one best fitted for library and reference work, it should be added that the author frequently presents his material in animated and sometimes almost dramatic form; and that he presents also the philosophy of history as well as events in detail. The work is one that has no existing counterpart, and it will be indispensable for anything like a complete study of the period involved.

Wonderful Escapes by Americans. Arranged and Edited by W. S. Booth. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $2.

This collection of true stories of adventure contains a great deal that will be new to most readers. In that sense the book is unhackneyed; and it certainly is stirring. Some twenty or more tales, varied in subject and full of adventure, make up the volume. It is obviously one that would please boys, but has an appeal also to older readers.

Louis XI and Charles the Bold. By Lieutenant-Colonel Andrew C. P. Haggard, D.S.O. Moffat, Yard & Co., New York. $4.

Colonel Haggard, a brother of Mr. Rider Haggard, has already instructed the world concerning various epochs of French history. His latest volume has to do with Louis XI and Charles the Bold. Every one who has read "Quentin Durward" is interested in the epoch of Louis XI. Colonel Haggard's pages give to us a special glimpse into that period because they bring out clearly the King's ingratitude to the house of Burgundy, a specially base ingratitude because that house had befriended him when he was a rebel to his father's authority. The rivalry between the King and his cousin Charles the Bold resulted finally in the death of Charles, through Louis's plotting, in 1477, at Nancy. The King was to live six years longer, despoiling his own godchild, Marie of Burgundy, Charles's daughter, of her possessions and behaving as badly as possible. To think that fate should further and posthumously favor the fortunes of the old rascal by the marriage of his son, Charles VIII, with Anne of Brittany! The feudal opposition either from Burgundy or Brittany was overcome, and France became for the first time a really consolidated kingdom. Colonel Haggard's account is extremely readable.

Handy Boy (The). By A. Neely Hall. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company, Boston. $1.60.

Over five hundred pictures help show the boy how to build a workshop, to make gifts for Christmas, electric toys, an electric alarm clock from a cheap common clock, and in general to use tools and exercise his ingenuity.

New Era in Chemistry (A). By Harry C. Jones. The D. Van Nostrand Company, New York. $2.

There is a difference in kind as well as in extent between chemistry to-day and twenty-five years ago. What it is this book tells. Important new developments, theories established, new ideas advanced, the achievements of men like Berthelot, Thomson, and Ostwald—all are described as clearly as the nature of the subject admits.

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MANY INVENTIONS

THE INVENTOR OF COLD STORAGE

Recent despatches from Paris state that Charles Tellier, the inventor of the cold storage process, which first enabled American packers to export meat, recently died in a destitute condition, at the age of eighty-six, after having refused a pension from the International Cold Storage Association. This brings up the history of cold storage methods and the enormous growth of the industry, which has its abuses, but assuredly also its economic importance. The statement is made that thirty years ago M. Tellier discovered a method of freezing food by means of two new chemicals, methylic ether and trimethylamine. He built laboratories and perfected the process. He constructed the ship La Frigorifique, which took a cargo of frozen meat from Rouen to La Plata. The menu of the dinner served on the ship was composed exclusively of products from distant countries, the transport of which was made possible by the method of which M. Tellier was the pioneer.

A BRITISH OIL BATTLE-SHIP

At the royal naval docks in Portsmouth, England, on October 16 was launched the Queen Elizabeth, the first battle-ship ever built to use oil, and oil only, for fuel and power. The great argument is that the smaller weight of fuel means greater possibility in the weight of armament. When the Queen Elizabeth goes into service a year hence, she will be watched with keen interest by naval experts the world over, and may prove to be the precursor of a great fleet of oil-burning war-ships. The cable despatches on the day of the launching said: "When she took the water, the Queen Elizabeth weighed 10,000 tons, the greatest launching weight of any ship ever sent down the ways of a British naval dockyard. Her keel was laid a year ago and her construction has been carefully guarded. Her ten 15-inch guns and her secondary batteries of 4 and 6 inch guns are to be mounted behind barbettes. This additional armament is made possible because of the lessening of displacement through the use of oil tanks instead of the heavy coal bunkers."

WHAT IS HORSE-POWER?

Among many engineers, says "Power," there arises discussion as to the incidents surrounding the origination of the term horse-power as applied to the steam engine. The following quotation from "Farey on the Steam Engine," published in 1827, will be welcomed by many:

"The machinery in the great breweries and distilleries in London was then moved by the strength of horses, and the proprietors of those establishments, who were first to require Mr. Watt's engines, always inquired what number of horses an intended engine would be equal to.

"In consequence, Mr. Watt made some experiments on the strong horses employed by the brewers in London, and found that a horse of that kind, walking at the rate of 2½ miles per hour, could draw 150 pounds avoirdupois by means of a rope passing over a pulley, so as to raise up that weight, with a vertical motion, at the rate of 220 feet per minute. This exertion of mechanical power is equal to 33,000 pounds (or 528 cubic feet) of water raised vertically through a space of one foot per minute, and he denominated it a horse-power, to serve for a measure of the power exerted by his steam engines."

This estimate is much beyond the capacity of the average strong horse. Smeaton and other early engineers estimated that 22,000 pounds per minute was more accurate.

WILL TYPHOID DISAPPEAR?

Some time ago, in an article in The Outlook by Major-General Carter, who has been in command of the two army mobilizations in Texas, the very extraordinary success of typhoid inoculation was shown in astonishing figures. In view of the recent outbreak of typhoid in New York, the question of school vaccination has been raised. Opinions and facts about this and about the army and navy use of this remedy are contained in an article in the New York "Sun," from which we quote some paragraphs:

"Dr. Lederle, Health Commissioner of New York, is a strong advocate of vaccination as a preventive of typhoid fever, but he doubts if compulsory vaccination of all school-children is feasible now. Remembering the opposition to smallpox vaccination, all of which has not yet disappeared, he said he believed the protest against a law requiring school-children to be vaccinated for typhoid as well as for smallpox would be great.

"Dr. Mark L. Fleming, the acting superintendent of Bellevue Hospital, where the brunt of the present outbreak has been borne, said he believes compulsory vaccination for typhoid fever ultimately will bring about the elimination of the disease.

"'We are very much in favor of immunization here,' he said. 'We require all nurses and doctors to be vaccinated before they enter upon their duties. We do it for their protection, and the system has worked out well. If all school-children were vaccinated, the elimination of the disease ultimately would follow, as it has in the case of smallpox.'

"The United States Government makes vaccination against typhoid compulsory in the army

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and navy. Every young man who enters West Point or Annapolis must submit to vaccination, and the results throughout the country have justified the requirement. The ordinary soldier and sailor is inoculated before he gets a chance to get into his fighting togs.

"It was said at Governor's Island that the required system of inoculation is very thorough. Just as soon as the recruit arrives at the station he is inoculated with anti-typhoid serum. After ten days he is given another dose, heavier than the first, and ten days later he gets a third, which is heavier still. This method is followed in order to give the man's system a chance to accommodate itself to the reaction of the serum. . . . Typhoid is an unknown disease at Governor's Island."

VITRIFIED BRICK FOR COUNTRY ROADS

The United States Department of Agriculture has recently issued as Bulletin 23 of the new departmental series a contribution from the Office of Public Roads on "Vitrified Brick as a Paving Material for Country Roads." It says: "Brick roads have four distinct advantages: durability, easy traction, ease of maintenance, and good appearance. The high first cost is a disadvantage. The materials used and the process of manufacture are described as well as methods of testing the bricks. The construction of brick roads is set forth in detail and the various steps in the process are illustrated. Especial attention is directed to the importance of proper engineering supervision. The appendix gives the method for inspecting and testing paving brick as recommended by the American Society for Testing Materials."

THE USES OF PAPER

The manifold uses of wood-pulp paper are astonishing. That we have paper cord, paper bottles, paper boxes, paper houses (in Japan), paper collars, and paper cups is well known, but how many people have heard of paper screws, paper window panes, paper raincoats, paper hencoops, or paper sails for ships? These are only a few of the queer developments of the paper industry described by a writer in the "Scientific American," who tells us also of the extent of the wood-pulp manufactures:

"At first wood-pulp was used entirely in making paper, but to-day it is employed for manifold purposes. Its use bids fair to be large for moldings, friction-clutches, belt-pulleys, gear-wheels, barrels (reinforced with wire), tubs, pails, washboards, water pipes, conduits, caskets, bathtubs, carriage bodies, floor covering, electric insulators, umbrella-stands, furniture, imitation of leather, cloth, and silk. Clearly the employment of wood-pulp is practically unlimited.

"The great consumers of wood-pulp to-day are the paper manufacturers, who use nearly ninety per cent of the entire production. According to the Bureau of Statistics, there are at present about 250 mills which manufacture wood-pulp in this country. The capacity of these mills is over 2,500,000 tons of pulp annually, valued at more than $32,000,000. In addition to this amount, more than 400,000 tons are imported from Canada and various countries of Europe. The value of the material received from abroad in 1911 was nearly $15,000,000. These figures show an increase in the business of over five hundred per cent in the past ten years, and the same time in the future promises even greater strides."

THE FLUELESS GAS-HEATER

The "Journal of the American Medical Association" sounds a warning against the flueless gas stove. It says:

"At this time of the year, when many feel that it is not cold enough to use the general heating system of the house but is too cool to be entirely without heat, the use of portable gas or oil heating apparatus is a great convenience. Cleanliness and comparative low cost of operation make this type of heating deservedly popular. Unfortunately, many of these heaters are used without a flue-pipe to carry off the products of combustion. The use of such heaters is to be deprecated. This is especially true of those devices of low efficiency that make it practically imperative that the doors and windows be kept closed if the object sought—that of raising the temperature of the room—is to be obtained. These heaters put a premium on insufficient ventilation. . . . There may be times when one is willing to sacrifice health for comfort for a short time; when an increase of temperature in the room is sought even at the expense of vitiated air. When this is done with a full knowledge of possible dangers, it may not be too severely criticised. But to lead people to believe that any room can be heated healthfully for any length of time by means of flueless gas or oil heaters is dangerous doctrine. An efficient gas or oil heater with a flue attachment is an admirable piece of household apparatus; a flueless heater—except for the most temporary of uses, and then used with a full knowledge of the dangers involved—is an abomination."

67,986 PATENTS ASKED FOR

The annual report of the Commissioner of Patents indicates that for the past year there were 67,986 applications for patents, the largest total on record, except 1912, during which 69,236 applications were received. Receipts from all sources aggregated $2,082,490; expenditures, $1,924,459; the net revenue being $158,030.—*American Machinist.*

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BY THE WAY

For the fourth year in succession a woman has won the 250 guineas prize awarded annually by Mr. Andrew Melrose, an English publisher, for the best first novel. Miss Margaret Peterson is the winner, and her book is called "The Lure of the Little Drum." The judges were Mr. W. J. Locke, Mr. Joseph Conrad, and Miss Mary Cholmondeley.

A great mine disaster in South Wales resulted in the entombment and death of 436 men. Such a loss is unparalleled in the history of coal-mining in Great Britain.

When the Cape Cod Canal is opened in 1915, or possibly next year, steamers between New York and Boston or New York and Portland will save three hours' time by taking the canal route. The distance saved will be approximately fifty-five miles.

Naval Constructor R. D. Gatewood and Surgeon Charles M. Oman urge the humidifying of the air on battle-ships. Dry air, they say, is injurious to the respiratory passages, not only on ships but in houses. "It has been estimated that the air in a steam-heated office is several degrees drier than the air in the Sahara Desert. To this extreme dryness of offices and houses is ascribed by some medical statisticians the great increase in 'colds' with the coming of winter and the shutting of windows."

Bulletin 158, of the University of Illinois, on the relative value of the various cuts of beef, states that "when a housewife buys a porterhouse hip bone at 25 cents a pound she is really paying 29 cents for the usable food purchased. For round steak, at 15 cents, 15.3 cents; roast beef—rump—at 12 cents, 12.8 cents; round pot roast at 10 cents, 10.1 cents. This should convince her that the cheaper cuts are more economical."

The statue of Washington erected in Buenos Aires, noted in The Outlook for August 9, was, a correspondent writes, a memorial gift to the Argentine Government, presented by American residents of Buenos Aires on the one hundredth anniversary of Argentina's independence. American flags on this occasion, our correspondent adds, were so numerous that "only the fact that it [the Fourth of July] was a biting mid-winter day kept us from believing that we were once more at home under our own flag."

Fifteen girls, one from each of fifteen Southern States, are to have a free trip to Washington as the winners of contests in connection with the canning clubs conducted under the auspices of the United States Department of Agriculture. About 25,000 girls are enrolled in these clubs. Each girl raises produce, principally tomatoes, on a tenth-acre plot. Miss Bessie Starkey, of Virginia, last year canned 5,928 pounds of tomatoes grown on her tenth-acre piece of ground.

The Salvation Army is to investigate the housing conditions in large cities which make it difficult for a man with a number of children to rent a desirable habitation or apartment. Many landlords put a ban on families in which small children are included, and so become a factor in race suicide. The Salvation Army will try to rectify this anti-social practice.

The La Flèche fowls of France, says a writer in the "Country Gentleman," are in demand in very wealthy households and in high-class cafés. Fine specimens sometimes bring ten dollars, and a very general price is five dollars each. Probably no other country has a market for chickens at such prices; the French *gourmet* must have what he wants regardless of cost.

The age of chivalry has surely passed. A New York City car conductor refused to pick up a nickel that a lady had accidentally dropped while paying her fare; the lady abused and then, being athletic, thumped the conductor; the latter haled his assailant to court; and an unfeeling judge fined her ten dollars. A little politeness might have saved all this trouble and expense.

Ralph Rose, of California, one of the finest athletes the world ever produced, recently succumbed to typhoid. Holder of the world's record as a shot-putter, this splendid specimen of physical manhood was 6 feet 5⅝ inches tall and weighed 260 pounds. He furnishes another example of the fact that the athlete's hold on life is a slight one, his age being only twenty-eight and his illness brief.

Holland is still the home of the tulip bulb, though the "tulip craze" is a matter of remote history. Professor Henry van Dyke, American Minister to the Netherlands, signalized the beginning of his incumbency of his new office by sending a choice collection of tulip bulbs to be planted in the garden of Nassau Hall at Princeton.

In the international balloon race this year representatives of eight nations started from Paris. The American balloon Goodyear, piloted by Ralph H. Upson and Ralph A. D. Preston, won, while another American balloon took second honors.

An analysis of 20,000 English words taken from the New Standard Dictionary shows that 4,842 of these words come from the Latin through French; 3,681 words are of Anglo-Saxon and English origin; 2,880 come direct from Latin; 2,493 are directly or indirectly from

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the Greek; the American (Indian?) languages supply 102 words, the African languages 32, and Lithuanian ends the list with one word to its credit.

At the Mothers' Assembly recently convened at Auburn, New York, overdressing in the schools was sharply criticised. Boy Scout uniforms or similar costumes were advocated for boys, serge dresses for girls, and some uniform dress for the teachers.

Dr. Rudolf Diesel, the famous inventor of the oil engine, disappeared from a Channel steamship on September 29. Two weeks later his body was washed ashore. Notwithstanding the great success of Dr. Diesel's inventions, he is supposed to have been financially embarrassed and to have jumped overboard while temporarily deranged.

The New York Central Railroad has a corps of instructors for its apprentices. At a recent conference of these instructors, says the "Railway Age Gazette," two things were noticeable. One was that less attention is now being given to mechanical drawing and more attention to the making of rough practical sketches for shop work; the other, that development along moral lines is of just as much importance to the company as progress in technical skill.

A limit to the weight of motor vehicles has been found to be necessary in order to protect the highways, and in New York the Commissioner of Highways, Mr. John N. Carlisle, has just issued a rule that fourteen tons, including vehicle and load, is in future to be the limit of weight that will be permitted on the highways of the State.

A railway was recently sued for damages for injury resulting from a flirtation. A brakeman undertook to deliver a note to a young woman by throwing it from his train as he passed her house. To make the love-letter "carry" he fastened the missive to a torpedo. The young lady got the note, but in opening it exploded the torpedo and was injured. She brought an action against the railway, but her suit failed. It is to be feared that this was the fate of the brakeman's also.

Boston is praised by a newspaper correspondent for the humanity of its horse-owners in adopting a specially constructed tin pail, with wide flaring sides, for the feeding of horses at their noonday meal. This is certainly an improvement on the smothering nose-bag in use in many places, which allows the horse no freedom of movement and no fresh air while he is eating his well-earned dinner.

Julian Hawthorne, novelist and promoter, and Dr. W. J. Morton, cancer specialist and financier, have been released from the Federal penitentiary in Atlanta, Georgia, where they had been imprisoned for misuse of the mails in a mining scheme. Both will seek work along the lines of their earlier professions, and leave mining ventures to others.

The Canadian Northern Railway, in making a terminal at Montreal, has adopted the bold plan of tunneling under Mount Royal to locate its passenger station in the heart of the city, thus avoiding the necessity of purchasing a costly right of way. The cost of the terminal will probably reach $20,000,000, and the company is developing a suburban district near its tunnel to defray a part of the expense.

It was a geography lesson, and the teacher, according to "Harper's Magazine," had been asking about the different States: "Tell me, Florence," she said, "what Rhode Island is celebrated for." For a moment the child was silent, then an inspiration came to her. "Rhode Island," replied the little girl, "is celebrated for being the only one of the United States that is the smallest."

A writer in the "Christian Register" defends Webster's memory in regard to the celebrated 7th of March speech, in which the Abolitionists contended that Webster had stifled his real convictions as to slavery in order to win the Presidential nomination. "He had a reasonable case," says the writer, "which commanded the entire assent of his own judgment, and he ought not to be called base for taking the stand which was to him the essence of patriotism." It may be recalled that Whittier's bitter poem "Ichabod," written in condemnation of Webster, is said to have been regretted by its author in his later years.

The Baldwin Locomotive Company built its first locomotive in 1832. It recently completed its forty-thousandth locomotive, having built no less than twenty thousand since 1902, or about six for every working day.

Meeches Farm, Poole, England, is said to be the greatest chicken farm in the world. Experiments made there in the forcing of the growth of chickens by electrical influences are reported as showing remarkable results. In five weeks electrically treated chickens have attained the normal weight of chickens three months old. The experiments may have possible corollaries in the treatment of subnormal children.

A machine devised to show the speed at which a baseball may be thrown was tested in the case of two pitchers noted for their fast delivery. Walter Johnson threw the ball at the rate of 122 feet a second; Nap Rucker's fastest throw recorded 113 feet a second. Rucker generously said that he believed his rival could throw the ball 150 feet in a second.

Canada is to-day using 400,000 telephones, compared with half that number a year ago. She has one telephone to every nineteen inhabitants.

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